Public Administration

The Journal of the Institute of Public Administration
Palace Chambers, Bridge Street, S.W.1

Vol. XII—No. 4

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October, 1934

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LONDON: THE INSTITUTE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION,
Palace Chambers, Bridge Street, Westminster, S.W.1.

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Corrigenda.

Vol. XII. No. 3, Page 329, line 3, delete "it must be said and," substitute "and, it must be said,"

The Quota System with reference to the Coal Industry

By Mr. JOHN T. RANKIN

[*Lecture delivered to the Institute of Public Administration (Sheffield and North-East Midlands Regional Group), at the University, Sheffield, on 11th December, 1933—Revised September, 1934*]

THE Coal Mines Act of 1930 was an epoch-making Act. It marked a new departure in the relation of the State towards industry. In the management of any business probably two of the most important factors, which the Executive zealously guards because upon them the profitability of any business largely depends, are (*a*) the volume of the production of the business and (*b*) the prices at which the products of the business are to be sold. Part I of the Coal Mines Act, 1930, as I shall show in detail later, regulates the liberty of the Executive of every coal undertaking in the country in both of these vital regards.

Most of us are of course familiar with the restrictions which Parliament has imposed upon what are known as "Statutory Companies"—that is, Railway, Gas, Electricity, and similar undertakings providing services of public utility. Such Companies have had conferred upon them by Statute what are, in effect, monopolistic rights of supply of these services within defined areas, and it is therefore, I think admittedly right that, in the interests of the public, and to prevent exploitation, Parliament should impose restrictions upon such undertakings, to ensure that these monopolistic powers are not abused. This is done in various ways according to the nature of the services rendered. In the case of Gas and Electricity Companies, for example, the dividend is limited to a specified return upon the capital, after which all profits must be applied in reduction of the charge to consumer—and so on.

There have also, of course, been many Acts of Parliament regulating workmen's wages and the hours and conditions of work. In such circumstances, and for such purposes, statutory regulation appears to be not only desirable but necessary.

In the case of the Coal Mines Act, 1930, however, it is, so far as

I am aware, the first Act which Parliament has passed—at least since the advent of the Industrial era in this country—which regulates—or, as some would say—interferes with, the right of the individual trader possessing no monopolistic powers or rights, to manage the commercial side of his business as he might think fit. For it places such traders under statutory regulations as to the amount of their production and the price or prices below which they were not allowed to sell.

To understand properly how it was that this far-reaching Act came to be passed, it is necessary to go back a little way into history—not a very long way, you will be relieved to hear—in fact, no further back for my purpose to-night than the year 1926. In that year the General Strike occurred. Its immediate cause was a national stoppage of the miners in consequence of a wages dispute, which continued for seven months until 1st December, 1926, although in some parts of the country production had recommenced earlier.

The effects of this long stoppage upon the coal industry were disastrous. Exports virtually ceased, while almost 20 million tons of coal were imported—an unprecedented state of affairs in the history of the British coal industry.

On the full resumption of work, most colliery undertakings embarked upon a policy of maximum production. This, in turn, led to a policy of severe price cutting, on the part of many coalowners, to secure trade, and in the result, according to figures published by the Mining Association, the British coal industry as a whole, lost during 1927 nearly £5,500,000.

But even prior to 1926 the trend of trade had been moving against the British Coalfields. A study of the statistics of the industry from 1800 shows a continuous increase in production, and from 1850 (when the production was 50 million tons per annum) an extremely steep and continuous upward trend until 1913, when the production reached 287 million tons per annum.

It is perhaps illuminating to interpolate here that, had that curve continued, the production in 1930 would have been 350 million tons per annum.

Unhappily it did not continue; output fell steeply during the War years; there was a catastrophic drop in 1921, owing again to strikes; a quick rebound to the 1913 level in 1923, owing to the occupation of the Ruhr; but in 1927 output had fallen to 251 millions, a drop of 36 millions as compared with 1913, of which 29 millions was export and 7 millions home consumption.

On the other hand, the output of Europe, excluding Great Britain, had increased between 1913 and 1927 by 58 millions; so that while the total output of Europe had increased 22 millions, the British output had declined by 36 millions. Moreover, the world demand for

coal had increased during this period by 86 million tons per annum.

This momentous change in the conditions of the British coal industry can be attributed to the displacement of overseas markets during war years; the development of coalfields during and after the war in countries unable to obtain coal previously supplied by Great Britain; the supply of coal by Germany in post-war years as reparations; the increasing use of gas, oil and electricity as substitutes for raw coal; and finally, the opportunity afforded during 1926 to Continental coalfields, particularly Poland, of obtaining a firm footing in markets up till then almost wholly supplied by Great Britain.

It should also be remembered that, due to the abnormal circumstances of the war and the post-war period, the output capacity—actual and potential—of all European coal-producing countries had expanded greatly, and, in 1927, substantially exceeded the then known demand. In Great Britain it had been ascertained that the potential rate of output was 330 million tons per annum. In 1927 the actual output was, as I have said, 251 million tons—an excess of potential capacity of nearly 80 million tons per annum.

The problem, therefore, which confronted the British coal industry in the beginning of 1928, was not only to adapt itself to what was hoped was a temporary contraction of demand and therefore output, with the view of obtaining an economic price for the coal produced; but to take steps to endeavour to recover lost markets and to secure a fair share of the increased world demand for coal.

To many of the leaders in the industry it was evident that this great and difficult problem could not be solved by the actions or efforts of individual concerns; the law of the survival of the fittest could not be relied upon with sufficient rapidity to extricate the industry from its plight, even if that law operated effectively, which in my experience it rarely does. It was clear that co-operative organisation in some form and on a large scale was essential to success.

That the position was widely recognised was evidenced by the fact that schemes for co-operative arrangements were set up in Scotland, Northumberland, South Wales, and the Midlands. The output of these districts represented 82 per cent. of the total production in 1927. In each case, however, these schemes did not command the whole-hearted support of the coalowners, and their operation was seriously prejudiced by non-member coalowners who, while deriving benefits from the schemes, made no contribution thereto, and whose existence and competition undermined the loyalty of the member coalowners.

In the case of the three first-mentioned schemes for this and other reasons, they were short lived.

By far the most important of these schemes, however, was that of the Midlands and it may be of special interest to this audience to hear something about it, because it was conceived in Yorkshire, and born in Sheffield. I propose, therefore, to consider its arrangements in some little detail, and also to refer to the results effected, because I wish to show the very direct effect it had upon the action which the Government took in 1929 and upon the form which the provisions of Part I of the Coal Mines Act, 1930, took in regard to District Schemes.

Popularly known as the " Five Counties Scheme " (erroneously as it happens, however, for it initially comprised eight counties), its official title was " The Central Collieries Commercial Association." It originally comprised 211 undertakings owning 442 mines situated in West Yorkshire, South Yorkshire, Lancashire and Cheshire, Nottinghamshire and Derbyshire, North Staffordshire, Cannock Chase, South Derby, Leicestershire, and Warwickshire. The total output in these districts in 1927 was 111.6 million tons, equal to almost 45 per cent. of the total output of the country in that year. It was at that time, I understand, the largest contiguous coal-producing area, in terms of output, in Europe. Those undertakings which became members raised, in 1927, 90 per cent. of the total output of the districts concerned.

The Association was constituted by a Deed of Covenant, executed by each member under seal, with a Trust Deed, under which the individual coalowners covenanted with trustees to observe and be bound by all conditions of the Rules and Regulations of the C.C.C.A., and to pay to the trustees on demand the monthly levies and any penalties imposed upon them by the Executive Council.

The management of the Association was vested in an Executive Council, assisted by a Basic Tonnage Committee, which dealt with all matters relating to the basic tonnages of each of the mines of the member undertakings; a Quota Committee, which determined the quotas to be applied to the basic tonnages in each month; and an Export Committee, which was charged with the duty of determining from time to time what financial assistance was required to enable the coalowners to meet competition in foreign markets; and of supervising the expenditure of the subsidy to be given to coalowners for the purpose of developing their export trade.

The objects of the C.C.C.A. were the Regulation of Output of coal in conformity with market requirements; the development of the export trade by the aid of subsidy; and the organised marketing of coal for home and export trade.

A levy, not exceeding 3d. per ton, was payable monthly by each member in respect of his output tonnage for the preceding month.

Out of the funds so raised the subsidy on export, and the expenses of the Association were provided.

Any member raising a tonnage of coal in any month in excess of his Quota Tonnage, plus 1 per cent. thereof, was obliged to pay to the trustees a penalty not exceeding a sum equal to 3s. for every ton of such excess, unless, in the opinion of the Executive Council, such excess had not endangered, delayed, or hindered any of the objects of the scheme.

I will not, at this stage, make any reference to the actual operation of this Association in practice, because its machinery was in many respects similar, and in some respects identical, with the provisions of the Coal Mines Act in relation to District Schemes. It will therefore probably be more appropriate if I refer to the subject of machinery when I come to discuss the operation of these District Schemes under the Act itself.

The Association commenced business in April, 1928, but came to an end for all practical purposes on 31st December, 1930.

It will be remembered that the C.C.C.A. sought to improve the economic position of its members by (*a*) regulating supply according to demand and (*b*) by assisting its members to increase their export trade by means of a subsidy.

Let us look then at the results achieved in each of these lines of endeavour. In the last three quarters of 1927, the districts originally comprised in the C.C.C.A. showed an aggregate loss of almost £3,400,000. This losing trend continued during the first three quarters of 1928, due largely, it may be assumed, to unremunerative contracts entered into in 1927, and the net debit balance for 1928 was £3,850,000. In 1929 this was converted into a credit balance of £2,840,000 and in 1930 the credit balance was £2,600,000.

Satisfactory as these results were, another important feature requires to be noted. Opponents of all such schemes have all along contended that regulation of output must increase cost of production, and for that reason such regulation must be uneconomic. What, however, are the facts? In the Returns made to the Minister of Mines costs in the coal industry are divided into two categories—(1) Wages; (2) Costs other than Wages. To simplify comparison I will take the two largest districts of Notts. and Derby and Yorkshire, which produced in 1927 nearly two-thirds of the total output of the districts comprised in the C.C.C.A.

In each of these two districts Wages cost per ton showed a progressive decline, the reduction in 1930 as compared with 1928 being 4d. per ton in the case of Notts. and Derby, and nearly 5d. in the case of Yorkshire. Even more striking are the figures for "Costs other than Wages." Everyone knows what stubborn resistance Over-

head Charges offer to efforts made to reduce them, and how directly the unit cost for Overhead Charges—say cost per ton—is affected by increase or decrease in the quantity of production; yet, comparing 1927, when there was no regulation of output, with 1930, when regulation was in force, Notts. and Derby showed a reduction of 6½d. per ton, and Yorkshire nearly 7d. per ton in these Overhead Charges, notwithstanding the fact that the output of the two districts in 1930 was upwards of half-a-million tons less than in 1927.

I am not, of course, a mining engineer, but I have a shrewd suspicion that these reductions in cost were brought about because regulation compelled mine managers to put on their " thinking caps," and economies, which might not otherwise have been put in force, were effected.

Let us now look at exports. The following short table of exports from the Humber Ports, through which by far the largest proportion of the coal from the Midland Area is shipped is illuminative.

Exports	*Tons.*	*Per cent.*
Year ended 31st March, 1928, no subsidy...	2,566,733	100
,, ,, ,, 1929, subsidy ...	4,728,534	184
,, ,, ,, 1930, ,, ...	7,018,712	274
,, ,, *30th April, 1931*, 8 months' subsidy	6,112,479	238
Year ended 30th April, 1932, no subsidy ...	4,291,198	167
,, ,, ,, 1933, ,, ...	3,497,975	136
,, ,, ,, 1934, ,, ...	3,523,177	137

The dissolution of the C.C.C.A. came about because (*a*) the initial period fixed for its existence was too short to enable the difficulties, particularly in regard to basic tonnages, to be smoothed out; (*b*) the fact that there were coalowners, representing 10 per cent. of the output of the districts, who remained outside of the Association and reaped increasing advantages as a result of the work of the Association, without making any contribution in respect thereof; (*c*) the difficulties in regard to the fixation of individual basic tonnages and the existence of these coalowners outside the Association influenced the Executive Council to take certain steps, designed to placate existing members, which resulted in a loosening of the regulation of output, as a result of which more coal was permitted to be produced than could be absorbed at economic prices; (*d*) this, in turn, resulted in coal being offered in inland markets in certain cases by coalowners receiving substantial subsidy in aid of exports, which subsidy was partly

derived from these inland coalowners whose markets were so attacked; and, (*e*) failure to carry acceptance of several schemes which were propounded for the regulation of prices in the inland and export markets.

Thus came to an end what was, so far as I am aware, the greatest voluntary effort that has yet been made in this country by any body of industrialists to bring about an improvement in the economic conditions of an industry by co-operative measures; and, in this connection, it should not be overlooked that the conception and the structure of the scheme was the work of the coalowners themselves and their advisers, and no one else.

At the time these various voluntary District Schemes were being set up and operated, it became apparent that in order properly to organise the coal-producing industry such voluntary schemes, if they were to be successful, must be organised on a national basis. Accordingly, a Committee representative of all coal-producing districts, known as the Central Coal Marketing Committee, was set up. Towards the end of 1929 this Committee produced such a scheme of organisation on a national basis. Under this scheme District Associations were to be set up on a voluntary basis in each district with powers to provide for the regulation of the output of its members periodically; and of prices of coal sold by them; and for co-operation with other Associations in subsidising trade, including export trade; and other incidental powers.

There was to be a Central Committee consisting of representatives of each of the District Associations appointed on a tonnage basis. The main function of the Central Committee was to determine periodically the tonnage of coal which each district was to be permitted to produce during that period. The District Associations were to bind themselves not to exceed such permitted output, and if they did so, to pay a penalty of 2s. 6d. for each ton of such excess.

These were the main principles and purposes of the scheme, although, of course, there were many Rules and Regulations necessary and incidental to the proper carrying out of these purposes.

At this stage some brief reference to the political situation at this time is necessary. It will be remembered that in June, 1929, a General Election took place as a result of which no one party secured a majority in the House of Commons. The Labour Party, being the largest individual Party (although in a minority in the House as a whole), were requested by His Majesty to form a Government, and they assumed office.

In the course of the Election the Labour Party had given a pledge to the miners to reduce the underground hours of work in the coal industry to 7. The miners were therefore looking to the Labour Party,

now that it had assumed office, to redeem this pledge.

The Government found, as indeed any Government would have found, that in spite of the voluntary efforts that had been made by the coalowners to improve the economic condition of the industry by means of the schemes to which I have referred, the state of its finances in 1929 was still bad. It was known, when the Government came into power, that voluntary schemes had failed, or were failing, owing to the opposition of recalcitrant minorities. It was recognised that, under such conditions, a reduction in hours of work would inevitably give rise to claims for cuts in wages, and that therefore it was essential for the proceeds of the industry to be increased, if such cuts in wages were to be avoided.

In July, 1929, the President of the Board of Trade announced that, as part of their Coal policy, the new Government proposed to expedite the establishment of District Marketing Schemes, with a Central Scheme for co-ordinating the activities of the district organisations.

At meetings which took place between representatives of the coalowners and the Government, the owners were informed of the Government's intentions and were invited to submit schemes by the middle of October, 1929. By that date considerable progress had been made in the provision of draft district schemes and of the central co-ordinating scheme, although the support accorded to those district schemes which were put forward indicated, in each case, the existence of substantial minorities. In some districts, however, no schemes were put forward.

It having become thus apparent that unanimity amongst the coalowners as to a basis of reorganisation on voluntary lines could not be attained, the Coal Mines Bill (Part I of which was designed to give the necessary powers to the Board of Trade) was introduced to Parliament in December, 1929.

I hope that so far, I have made clear the causes leading up to the submission of this far-reaching legislation in relation to the coal industry.

To sum them up—there was an apparent decline in the demand for British coal; there was the known existence of a large excess of potential productive capacity in Great Britain and elsewhere, over the known effective demand; these circumstances had led to intense competition and price-cutting, resulting in heavy losses to the industry, with depressing effect on mine workers' earnings; voluntary efforts by a section of the coalowners themselves had either failed or were failing, largely because of the opposition of minorities; and, finally, the pledge to reduce hours of work made it imperative that measures should be adopted to regulate the marketing of coal, so as

to mitigate this price-cutting, with a view to improving the economic condition of the industry, so that it might be able to meet the increased wage cost and earn some return upon the capital invested in the industry.

The Bill, as I have said, was introduced in December, 1929, and was placed on the Statute Book in August, 1930. It was vigorously opposed by the Conservatives throughout, and received only the intermittent support of the Liberals, so that on one occasion the Government escaped defeat only by a majority of 3. During the course of its passage through Parliament, the main amendments made, were:—

(*a*) That the powers to make levies, either on a national basis or on a district basis, for the purpose of subsidising or facilitating the sale of any class of coal, were for all practical purposes eliminated; and

(*b*) Complicated provisions in relation to the fixation of standard tonnages were inserted which in practice have added greatly to the difficulties of that already complex problem.

Turning now to the Act itself, I do not propose to weary you with any detailed examination of its provisions, but rather to give you a general description of its purposes, its structure, and the machinery of the schemes to be set up under its provisions.

The Act is in five parts and one schedule. Part I, which deals with the Production, Supply, and Sale of Coal is the only Part of the Act which concerns us to-night.

In this Part of the Act it is provided that there shall be a scheme, known as " the Central Scheme " to be administered by a " Central Council " composed of representatives elected on behalf of all the owners of coal mines in the several districts; and that there shall for every district be a " District Scheme " to be administered by a body to be known as the " Executive Board," to be elected by the owners of coal mines in the district.

It will be noted, therefore, that both the Central and the District Schemes are to be administered by elected representatives of the coal-owners themselves and the officers appointed by them.

The chief functions of the Central Scheme are:—

(1) To provide for the allocation to each district by the Central Council of a maximum output, known as " the district allocation," such allocation to be determined at such time, and for such period, as the Council may think fit. The Central Council may, however, increase the allocation to any district during any such period if they are satisfied that it is necessary to meet an increased demand for coal or any class of coal; and

(2) For the imposition on and recovery from, the Executive Board of a district which has exceeded its District Allocation, of a sum equal to 2s. 6d. per ton on such excess.

The Central Council has also power to give consideration to the

operation of the District Schemes, and to give advice thereon, with a view to co-ordinating the operation of these schemes. Any Executive Board which is aggrieved by any act or omission of the Council, or of any other Executive Board, or of any other persons in respect of their functions under a scheme in force under the Act, can refer the matter to arbitration.

There are also provided a number of other powers incidental to the carrying out of these functions.

As regards the District Schemes, powers are given to the Executive Board:—

(*a*) For the classification of coal, either for the purposes of fixation of minimum prices or for the determination of separate standard tonnages for a separate class of coal;

(*b*) For the determination of the standard tonnage of every coal mine in the district;

(*c*) For the determination periodically of the Quota, *i.e.*, the proportion of the standard tonnage which each coal mine in the district is to be allowed to produce. In this connection it is further provided:—

(1) There may be separate Quotas for separate classes of coal;

(2) That the Quota for each class of coal must be the same proportion of the standard tonnage for all the coal mines in the district; and

(3) That in calculating the Quota the District Allocation shall not be exceeded;

(*d*) For enabling arrangements to be made for the transfer of quota between owners of coal mines in the district;

(*e*) For the determination of minimum prices for each class of coal produced in the district, *i.e.*, the prices below which such coal may not be sold or supplied by the coalowners;

(*f*) For the collection of levies to meet the expenses of administering the Scheme;

(*g*) For securing that any owner of a coal mine who is aggrieved by any act or omission of the Executive Board or any other persons in respect of their functions under the Scheme, may refer the matter to arbitration; and

(*h*) For the imposition and recovery of penalties from coalowners in respect of contraventions of, or of failure to comply with, the provisions of the Scheme.

There were also here a number of supplemental provisions with which I need not trouble you.

There were also provisions safeguarding the position of contracts entered into before 11th December, 1929, the date when the Bill was introduced to Parliament.

In order to protect the interests of consumers and other outside interests it was further provided that there should be constituted a National Committee of Investigation, charged with the duty of investigating any complaint made with respect to the operation of the Central Scheme; and District Committees of Investigation, charged with the duty of investigating any complaint made with respect to

the operation of District Schemes. These committees have been constituted from persons representing coalowners, mine workers, and consumers, including, in a number of instances, ladies, representing, presumably, domestic consumers.

I need not, I think, trouble you with any detailed account of the powers and duties of these committees. It is known, however, that the complaints laid before them have been relatively few, and that in certain instances, upon representations having been made by the Investigation Committee to the Executive Board concerned, steps have been taken to rectify the conditions in respect to which the complaint was made.

The above is a rough and, I fear, rather dry summary of the statutory provisions, but from it emerges the structure of the plan.

(*a*) There is the Central Council, which periodically fixes the output of coal which each district may be permitted to produce (*i.e.*, the District Allocation) and which has power to recover penalties against any district which exceeds that allocation.

(*b*) There is in each district a scheme, with an Executive Board, which fixes the standard tonnage of each coal mine in the district, and the proportion of that standard tonnage, known as the quota," which may be produced in any period fixed under the scheme, or separate quotas where there are separate standard tonnages for separate classes of coal; determines the minimum prices below which the coal produced is not to be sold; and possesses powers to recover penalties for exceeding the quota or for the making of sales at prices, or under conditions, which constitute an infringement of the minimum price regulations.

It will thus be seen how closely Part I of the Act adheres to the Rules and Regulations of the Central Collieries Commercial Association as regards district schemes, and to the scheme drawn up by the Central Coal Marketing Committee as regards the Central Scheme. Therefore, although Parliament has imposed this Act upon the coal industry and upon the country generally, it should be recognised that the schemes are in the main similar to those previously propounded or operated by coalowners themselves, and that the Act leaves the administration of the statutory compulsory schemes in the hands of the coalowners, subject only to the safeguards provided by the Committees of Investigation, and by the general supervision of the Board of Trade.

Turning now to the Act in actual operation—I will refer first to the operations under the Central Scheme, and so far as the District Schemes are concerned, I will make particular reference to the

Midland Amalgamated District Scheme, with which my firm has been professionally associated since its institution.

As regards the Central Scheme, as has been pointed out, the main function of the Central Council is to fix the district allocation for each district. Since the commencement of the Scheme, district allocations have been fixed quarterly. The procedure is, that the Secretary of the Central Scheme invites the Executive Board of each district schemes to submit an estimate of the tonnage of coal it considers the District will require to raise during the quarter under consideration, and the tonnage of coal which the District expects to dispose of during that quarter. Members of the Central Council are supplied with this information, and with statistical information in regard to the outputs of the various districts for the quarter under consideration in preceding years, and other relevant figures. No precise method is laid down in the Central Scheme as to the basis upon which the district allocations are to be decided, but it is provided that, in determining the district allocation, the Council shall, on every occasion, have regard to all relative circumstances affecting the several districts, not excluding the relative position of such districts prior to the war.

In practice it has been found difficult to reconcile the claims of the several districts, the interests of which often conflict. This difficulty is intensified by the fact that the body charged with the duty of determining these allocations is composed solely of coalowners who are representatives of those districts, and that there is no independent person, or persons, on the Central Council empowered to give a decision in the event of disagreement. In these circumstances, on a number of occasions disputes as to allocations and other matters have had to be referred to arbitration.

Broadly speaking, the district allocations have been determined having regard to the performance of each district during some past period, while from time to time, and particularly recently, additional allocations have been given to meet an increased demand for coal that has arisen during the period.

The chief difficulty which the Central Council encounters is to reconcile the interests of those engaged mainly in the inland trade with those who are engaged largely, if not mainly, in the export trade.

In export markets, where British coal has to meet the competition of Continental and other coal-producing countries, the prices are world prices. The result is that for a number of years British export prices have been lower—and in certain districts considerably lower—than inland prices. Another factor which accentuates the difficulty is that the classes of coal which are in demand for the export market represent only a proportion of the coal produced, so that the other classes of coal, necessarily raised with them, must be disposed of in

the inland market. If, therefore, District Allocations or additional allocations are fixed having regard to an increased export demand, the result is that of the coal so produced only a proportion is suitable for export, and therefore more coal than may be required is available for sale in the inland market. This tends to increase, and has in fact increased, the competition from exporting districts upon inland markets hitherto held by districts whose trade was predominantly inland.

It is because of these circumstances that complaints have appeared from time to time, criticising the Act in relation to the export trade. Nevertheless, it can be affirmed, so far as the Midland Scheme is concerned at least, that such complaints have proved, on investigation, to be ill-founded and to have emanated mostly from those who had been deprived by the Act of the freedom, previously enjoyed, to set colliery against colliery until the price was driven to an unremunerative level.

In connection with the agreements which the Government has recently entered into with certain foreign countries, under which the Government has made special efforts to ensure that these countries take a substantially greater proportion of their supplies of coal from Great Britain than in recent years, assurances have been given, on behalf of the Central Council, that there will be adequate supplies of coal available for the requirements of these countries.

This, and the other considerations relating to the export trade, have led to a reconsideration of the provisions of the Act, which at present, as you will remember, provides that each district allocation shall be one tonnage figure for all purposes of the trade of each district. Proposals for the fixation of separate allocations for inland trade and export trade respectively, and separate standard tonnages and quotas for each coalowner and undertaking, for these respective classes of trade have been under consideration. These proposals, however, have not found acceptance amongst all coalowners, and the same fate has befallen proposals to set up export pools for dealing with the special requirements of the export trade.

The Government has announced its intention to take steps, by Parliamentary action if necessary, to ensure that the operation of the Act shall not interfere with the due fulfilment of the assurances given to those countries with whom we have signed Trade Agreements.[1]

[1] Since this paper was delivered, the Government, in agreement with the coalowners, has caused amendments to be made to the Central Scheme requiring that separate district allocations shall be made for coal to be supplied for inland and export purposes respectively. Amendments have also been made to the various District Schemes enabling a different and possibly higher quota to be permitted for export supplies than for Inland supplies. These amendments will come into operation on 1st January, 1935.

Turning now to the operation of the District Schemes, I will take as an example the Midland Scheme. It provides, I think, a fair example, being the largest of all the schemes as regards the tonnage controlled, and is the scheme with which Sheffield is mostly concerned.

This scheme comprises the whole of Yorkshire, Nottinghamshire and North Derbyshire, South Derbyshire, and Leicestershire, which, in the scheme, are described as sections.

The total tonnage produced by these sections in the year 1930, *i.e.*, the year prior to the introduction of the scheme, was 77,635,006 tons.

The scheme is administered by an Executive Board, consisting of representatives appointed on a tonnage basis from each of the sections comprised in the scheme. In the Midland Scheme, however, certain duties which are carried out by the Executive Boards of other schemes are delegated to the following committees, which also consist of representatives of each of the sections, appointed on a tonnage basis:—

(*a*) Standard Tonnage Committee.
(*b*) Quota Committee.
(*c*) Central Sale Committee.
(*d*) Export Committee.

The work and operations of these committees are, however, carried on under the supervision of the Executive Board, and their decisions are subject to the approval of that Board. The Minutes of each of these committees are laid before the Executive Board, whose meetings are usually held monthly, and this affords an opportunity for a review by the Board of the operations and decisions of each of these committees. The scheme provides that each coalowner shall be advised of the decisions of the Executive Board, and this is done by each coalowner in the district being supplied with copies of the Minutes of the Executive Board, and of each of the committees referred to.

In addition to reviewing the work and operations of these committees, the Executive Board deals with all major questions of policy; inquires into all alleged breaches of the regulations and considers and decides upon the imposition of penalties; fixes the levies payable by the coalowners to meet the expenses of the scheme; and exercises generally the functions of management of the affairs of the scheme.

The Standard Tonnage Committee is charged with the difficult task of fixing the standard tonnage of each coal mine or undertaking, in the entire district. There are 214 undertakings at present comprised in the scheme, ranging from small dayholes, raising a few tons per day, to a number of the very largest coal undertakings in the country.

The Quota System

The interpretation and application of the provisions of the scheme, in relation to the fixation of standard tonnage, have undoubtedly presented many complexities and difficulties. I will not weary you with any details of these provisions, but I will touch on one or two of their salient features.

The basis for the initial fixation of Annual Standard Tonnage for each mine or undertaking is set out in the scheme, and when fixed, is expressed in so many tons per annum, let us say—500,000 tons per annum. It will be evident, therefore, that once all the standard tonnages for a district are fixed, the relationship as regards volume of trade between each and every coalowner in the district is determined; and this relationship could quite readily be expressed by a percentage of the whole accorded to each coalowner. It will thus be seen that the fixation of standard tonnages, in effect, determines the percentage or proportion of the total trade of the district falling to each coalowner. It is therefore not difficult to appreciate that this is a matter in regard to which acute controversy can arise, especially when it is borne in mind that wherever one coalowner succeeds in having his share increased, the others have their shares proportionately decreased. You will therefore not be surprised to learn that this subject has given rise to many disputes and arbitrations in the Midland District.

In the M.A.D. Scheme there are two classes of standard tonnage—General Standard Tonnage and Coking Standard Tonnage. This separation was made in order to ensure that coal required for the manufacture of coke, mainly for metallurgical purposes for use in blast furnaces, should have special consideration. Throughout, since the commencement of the scheme, the quota for coking standard tonnages has been 100 per cent.

Every coalowner has the right at any time to object to his standard tonnage, and his objection is, in the first instance, heard by the Standard Tonnage Committee, who, after hearing the evidence, and, usually, sending representatives to inspect the mine, decides in regard to the objection. If the coalowner is not satisfied with the decision of the Standard Tonnage Committee, he has the right to refer the matter to arbitration.

Once a coalowner's annual standard tonnage is determined, he is required to divide this total amount into monthly allocations, so as to take care of seasonal fluctuations which take place throughout the year. These monthly allocations are known as " monthly standard tonnages."

The work of this Committee has been most onerous, and although it cannot, I fear, be said that complete satisfaction has been given to all coalowners, it is hoped that recent proposed amendments to the

scheme and to the procedure under the scheme will in future obviate some of the more important, at least, of the difficulties encountered.

Quota Committee

As regards the operation of the Quota Committee, this Committee meets once per month, usually towards the end of the month. It has before it the particulars of the aggregate standard tonnages for the month; the total tonnage available for raising out of the district allocation; statistics as to stocks; coalowners' estimated disposals during the month for which the quota is to be fixed; and other important relevant information. Its duty is to estimate to the best of its ability the tonnage of coal which should be permitted to be produced during the month under consideration, so that there shall be sufficient, but not a surplus of coal available for the requirements of the trade. In other words, its duty is to regulate the supply of coal according to the demand. Here again the differing and conflicting interests of the export and inland trade present difficulties. The Rules provide, however, that the Quota Committee, having fixed the quota for a particular month, may increase it during the month to meet any unexpected increase in demand, and this has been done on a number of occasions.

The quota, I would remind you, has to be expressed as a uniform percentage of the standard tonnages of the coal mines in the district, for the period under consideration. Accordingly, in the Midland District, when this Committee has determined the quota or percentage, let us say for the month of December, to be 70—then this percentage applied to each coalowner's standard tonnage for December determines the tonnage of coal he is permitted to produce in that month, assuming that he has not acquired quota for that month from any other coalowner, and has no tonnage to carry forward. If a coalowner exceeds his permitted output in any month by more than one per cent., he becomes liable to pay a penalty of 3s. for each ton of such excess, and all excess tonnage is deducted from his permitted output in a subsequent month, as determined by the Quota Committee.

On the whole, and subject only to one or two special occasions when the demand for a certain class of coal was greater than the demand for other classes of coal, it can, I think, be fairly stated that the quota fixed has adequately met the requirements of the market. One statement can be definitely made—that on no occasion have the powers of the Quota Committee been used to create an artificial shortage of coal.

Central Sale Committee

As regards the Central Sale Committee, this Committee is charged

with the duty of determining the class to which any coal produced in the district belongs; and also has to determine from time to time the minimum price for every class of coal produced in the district.

The Act provides that " class " in relation to coal means a class determined according to the nature of the coal; or of the trade, industry or other category of consumer supplied; or according to whether it be supplied for use in Great Britain, or for export to any other country. It would be impossible, within the time at my disposal, to give you any satisfactory account of the enormous work involved in the classification of the coal produced in this very large district, and in the fixation of the minimum prices therefor.

Throughout, the Executive Board and the Central Sale Committee have been severely hampered by an important provision in the Act and the scheme, viz., that in relation to minimum prices there can be only one mimimum price for each class of coal, as defined in the scheme. The effect of that provision is that once the class of coal and the minimum price for that class is determined, it must apply whether the coal is delivered one mile from the pit-head or 200 miles from the pit-head. Such a principle runs contrary to all the practice of the trade prior to the Act.

Prior to the Act, the coalowner, when fixing his price—whether on a delivered or a pit-head basis—had to adjust it to meet the market price at the point where the sale was to be made. In that market he had to meet the competition of other coalowners whose mines might be situated nearer to the point of sale. Taking the cost of transport and wagon hire into consideration, therefore, these conditions resulted in lower pit-head prices being accepted at points distant from the mine, and higher pit-head prices at points nearer to the mine. In the M.A.D. Scheme, pit-head prices for the inland trade were adopted for the purposes of minimum prices, and in consequence of the provision in the Act and the scheme, to which I have referred, had to be fixed at the same minimum pit-head price for the same class of coal produced by each coalowner. Put shortly, this regulation has deprived coalowners of the opportunity, previously held, of adjusting their pit-head prices according to their geographical position in relation to the markets to be supplied. This has resulted, so far as the Midland District is concerned, in a serious dislocation and diversion of trade from the channels through which it had previously flowed. It has also seriously handicapped the Midland coalowners in competing with the exporting districts which, in consequence of the fall in the export trade and with the help of lower rates of wages and cheap coastwise freights, have been sending coal at low prices into markets largely supplied by Midland coalowners previously by rail.

These circumstances, it must be admitted, have led to serious difficulties in carrying out the minimum price provisions of the scheme. Evasion or avoidance of the minimum price regulations by means of subsidiary companies or other means has, I am afraid, occurred on a large scale. The Executive Board has, admittedly, found difficulty in applying the penalising provisions of the scheme in regard to such evasions or avoidances. Proposals, however, are before the Central Council and the Government to remedy this defect in the Act and in the scheme, and it is to be hoped that power to fix varying minimum prices for the same class of coal will be accorded to the industry as soon as possible.

Export Committee

In the absence of any statutory power to give financial assistance to the export trade, as was provided under the C.C.C.A., the work of this Committee is confined principally to advising the Central Sale Committee in regard to the fixation of minimum prices of export and bunker coal; to assisting the coalowners through shipping bureaux which have been established on the Humber and the Mersey, as regards the state of the export markets; and generally dealing with all matters relating to the interests of those engaged in the export trade.

It is perhaps too early as yet to assess adequately the true value of this Act, but in this connection I purpose to give you a few figures taken from reliable sources.

The net proceeds per ton of coal commercially disposable in Great Britain since 1929 was as follows:—

1929 13/10.92; 1930 14/1.02; 1931 14/0.17; 1932 13/9.94; and 1933 13/6.59.

The substantial measure of stability shown is, I think, noteworthy.

Comparing the British figures of proceeds of sale of coal with similar figures for other great coal-producing countries, and taking 1929 again as being 100, we get the following results:—

	U.K.	*Poland.*	*Germany.*	*U.S.A.*
1929 ...	100	100	100	100
1930 ...	101.26	98.26	98.64	95.48
1931 ...	100.75	94.51	86.32	86.43
1932 ...	99.41	90.90	73.80	73.87
1933 ...	not available.			

It is instructive, I think, to look at the trend of wholesale prices of commodities in Great Britain during these years, and to compare them with coal prices. Taking 1929 again as being 100, I find that in 1930 wholesale prices in Great Britain had fallen to 88; in 1931 to 76; and in 1932 to 75. Similar but rather greater falls, occurred in the wholesale price levels in the other countries to which I have referred.

These figures, I think, prove that since the commencement of the Act, coal prices in Great Britain have remained virtually stable, while substantial declines in coal prices have occurred in each of the other countries mentioned. They prove further that in Great Britain coal at least has resisted stoutly the influences, of which you are all aware, that have led to the disastrous fall in commodity values in the last three years.

Let us now look at costs of production and output during the same years in the United Kingdom, as shown in the following table:—

	Wages. s.	d.	Costs other than Wages. s.	d.	Total Cost. s.	d.	Production. Million tons.	Percentage of 1929.	Percentage of 1930.
1929 ...	9	4.69	4	1.82	13	6.51	254	100	—
1930 ...	9	6.39	4	2.39	13	8.78	237	93	100
1931 ...	9	5.31	4	3.42	13	8.73	217	85	92
1932 ...	9	3.26	4	4.75	13	8.01	206	81	87
1933 ...	9	0.00	4	3.76	13	3.76	204	80	86

The fall in wages cost is probably due to increased mechanisation in the mines, which I believe has largely been brought about by the passing of the Act. The really extraordinary feature, however, is the behaviour of the overhead charges in face of the substantial decline in production. In 1933 the production had fallen 20 per cent. compared with 1929, yet the overhead charges had increased by only 1.94d. per ton—or under 4 per cent. The total cost in 1933 is actually less than in 1930, the year before the Act came into operation, notwithstanding a fall in output of 14 per cent. In the face of these figures, can it be maintained by any impartial observer, that the Act has impaired economic working? The reverse has occurred. The Act has improved economic working.

But what effect, it may be asked, has the Act had upon our export trade? Let the figures as revealed in the following table again tell the story:—

	1929		1930		1931		1932		1933	
	1,000 Tons	%	1,000 Tons	%	1,000 Tons	%	1,000 Tons	%	1,000 Tons	%
United Kingdom	60,267	56.61	54,879	57.08	42,750	51.06	38,899	55.09	39,068	55.74
Poland	14,371	13.50	12,811	13.33	14,327	17.11	10,362	14.68	9,704	13.85
Germany.. ..	26,769	25.14	24,383	25.36	23,123	27.62	18,312	25.93	18.443	26.31
France and Saar	5,060	4.75	4,067	4.23	3,527	4.21	3,038	4.30	2,875	4.10
TOTAL ..	106,467	100.00	96,140	100.00	83,727	100.00	70,611	100.00	70,090	100.00

The consistent fall in the total exports from these countries is the result of conditions known to you all, accentuated by import quotas, tariffs and other Government restrictions that have been imposed. It

is fairly consistent with the alarming contraction in world trade that has resulted from these causes. The percentage figures, however, exhibit the share of the available trade obtained by each of these countries respectively; and it will be noted, with satisfaction I think, that although Great Britain suffered a setback in 1931 due no doubt to the critical financial situation which arose in that year prior to the suspension of the Gold Standard, yet in 1932 and in 1933 the relative position in 1929 had almost been regained.

These figures take us up to the end of 1933. It is possible that the financial results for 1934 will not be as satisfactory, because of the breaking away from minimum prices to which I have referred. Nevertheless, it can, in my opinion, be confidently affirmed that the Act has enabled the British coal industry to withstand the effects of the economic blizzard in a way that no other available agency could have done, without impairing, but rather improving, its efficiency; and, in doing so, it has assisted materially in preventing wage cuts, and therefore possible strikes and lock-outs, with all the disastrous consequences which such disturbances have caused in the past. If these claims are well founded, and I think they are, then this Act, even with its drastic powers and its present defects, has been amply justified.

His Majesty's Mails

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[*Being a paper read before the Leeds Regional Group of the Institute of Public Administration, January,* 1934—*revised*]

THE origin of the Postal Services was the organisation of relays to carry the King's despatches. These relays date from 1482. The "Chronicle of Croyland" tells us that King Edward IV had introduced the practice of "appointing a single horseman for every twenty miles by means of which travelling with the utmost speed and not passing their respective limits news was always able to be carried by letter from hand to hand 200 miles within two days." These horsemen were the original posts. They requisitioned horses by the royal right of Purveyance, with the enforced aid of the local authority and paid for them practically what they chose. Posts were not permanent on any road, but were set up as required. They were controlled from the King's household and an officer was appointed to control them, known as the "Master of the Posts." The first Master of the Posts whose name is known was Brian Tuke who was in office in 1516, and had a yearly salary of £66 13s. 4d.

The carriage of private letters is dealt with in a Proclamation of Elizabeth in 1591 ordering that no letters were to be sent to or from foreign countries except by the Posts. This followed earlier proclamations and was intended to put a stop to arrangements which had been set up by certain London merchants for the conveyance of their own letters.

Fixed posts were set up to Ireland via Holyhead and Bristol in 1598, to Berwick and Scotland in 1603, and to Plymouth in 1620. The letter service which was thus growing up was systemized in 1635 by Thomas Witherings under a proclamation of Charles I. The scheme was that he should pay the Posts 3d. a mile (£2,530 in all) and that they should carry for him a mail of letters. He was to take for himself a postage on the letters as follows:—

2d. per single letter up to 80 miles.
4d. ,, ,, ,, 140 ,,
6d. ,, ,, above 140 ,,
8d. ,, ,, to Scotland.

He was to set up the service on six roads, viz.:—to Edinburgh, Holyhead, Plymouth, Bristol, Norwich and Dover (daily to Dover, two or three times a week to other places), and he was to have a monopoly. The post out and home to Edinburgh was to take six days. Branch Posts were organised to meet the main Posts at various towns.

The advantage of this scheme to the King was that he was relieved of the cost (1609, £3,400) of the Posts, to the public generally there was much advantage by regularity of Posts and Witherings is believed to have made large sums of money. Later (1649-1660), the Commonwealth exacted a large annual payment from the possessor of the letter monopoly and finally put it up to tender. Thus began in the form of an annual rent the Public Revenue of the Post Office. In 1657 a Bill was passed through Parliament which fixed postage rates, retained the letter monopoly, and appointed the "Postmaster-General of England and Comptroller of the Post Office." In 1663 Post Office revenue was settled on the Duke of York.

The general farm of the Posts ceased in 1677, but many Posts continued to be farmed locally. In 1680 a London merchant named Dockwra organised a private local Post for London. He opened several hundred offices where messengers called for letters and post-marks were introduced. The postage was a penny. This post was held to be a breach of the Postmaster-General's monopoly and was taken over by the Postmaster-General. It was turned into a two-penny post in 1801 to raise additional revenue for the Napoleonic Wars.

In 1720 Ralph Allen, Postmaster of Bath, got a farm of the Posts at a rental of 50 per cent. higher than the gross receipts of the previous year. He reorganised and greatly extended the Posts at steadily rising rentals until his death 44 years later. His enterprise was rewarded and he made a fortune of £500,000 for himself.

Even at this time, London, Edinburgh and Dublin were the only cities within which there was recognised machinery for delivery.

The first mail coach ran on 2nd August, 1784, from Bristol to London (114 miles) and it did the distance in 17 hours. The system was soon extended to other roads.

The last of the old London mail coaches arrived in London from Norwich and Newmarket on 6th January, 1846. The times of some of the mail coaches are worth noticing: the night mail coach from London to Holyhead (258 miles) took 27 hours, to Falmouth (263 miles) 29 hours, to Edinburgh (396 miles) 43 hours, and to Thurso 108 hours.

On the 11th November, 1830, the first *rail*-borne mail was carried between Liverpool and Manchester.

His Majesty's Mails

In the old days letter stealing was punished with death. The last man executed for that crime was hanged on 13th February, 1832, and the death penalty was established in 1835.

By an Act of Parliament passed in August, 1839, the Treasury was empowered to prescribe postage rates by warrant and the same year it was accordingly provided that letters should be charged by weight. In December, 1839, a new warrant reduced the existing 4d. rate to 1d. and abolished the system known as " franking." These were the reforms which made the name of Rowland Hill famous and his simple process of prepayment of postage by means of stamps was adopted subsequently by every civilised country. Previously, for more than 200 years letters containing a single sheet were charged at the single rate and letters containing two sheets at double rate. A letter in an envelope counted as a double-rate letter. When the rate was decided the mileage scale had to be applied in order to assess the total postage, which even then was exclusive of delivery charges.

The number of letters passing through the post in 1839 was 82,000,000 of which 6,000,000 were " franks." In 1840 after the reduction in postage the number was 169,000,000.

In 1860	...	...	630,000,000
,, 1880	...	...	1,227,000,000
,, 1900	...	...	2,244,000,000
,, 1933	...	...	6,640,000,000

The " Book Post " was established in 1848 for the benefit of Education and in 1904 it was changed to the " Halpenny Packet Post."

Post Cards were introduced in 1870 and Letter Cards in 1892.

Now for a word regarding the *Inland Newspaper Post.*

In the seventeenth century the country postmasters who were innkeepers had as part of their emoluments the privilege of receiving *Gazettes* free of charge, and certain officers of the Post Office, known as " Clerks of the Roads " subsequently enjoyed a privilege of " franking " all newspapers tendered to them, and as a result they became in course of time the great newsagents of the Kingdom. So vast was their business that by 1764 the emoluments of the six Clerks of the Roads reached £8,000 a year, out of which they contributed £6,600 towards the grant of pensions and increased salaries to their colleagues. The system led to all kinds of abuses.

In 1764 an Act of Parliament was passed to regulate " franking " by Members of Parliament and they became entitled to the free transmission of newspapers to themselves at any place of which they might give notice to the Postmaster-General or to any other place if they signed their names outside. Booksellers soon found com-

plaisant members who would give the necessary notice on behalf of their customers and thus ordinary vendors and indeed all persons, as well as the Clerks of the Roads, could transmit newspapers free by post. In 1825 the law was made to agree with the practice and by an Act of Parliament newspapers were allowed to pass free of post.

But although the State was making no charge for the transmission of newspapers by post it was levying a stamp duty upon them all. This Duty dated from the reign of Queen Anne, was reduced to 1d. in 1836 and continued to exist until 1855. In that year newspapers were relived of the compulsory Stamp Duty, but it was provided that those which bore an impressed stamp might pass free by post. In 1870 this system was abolished and the rate of ½d. a newspaper, irrespective of weight, was established.

Parcel Post

The Inland Parcel Post was instituted in August, 1883, when the rates were:—

Not exceeding 1 lb.	...	...	...	...		3d.	
Exceeding 1 lb. and not exceeding 3 lb.					...	6d.	
,, 3 lb.	,,	,,	5 lb.	...	9d.		
,, 5 lb.	,,	,,	7 lb.	...	1s.	0d.	

In the year 1884-1885 23,000,000 parcels were sent by post. In 1933 the number dealt with in the Post Office was 154,000,000.

In June, 1887, horse-drawn coaches under contract began to run between London and Brighton for the conveyance of parcels not already conveyed by rail, and similar coaches were put on other roads where the circumstances were such as to show a clear saving in cost compared with the cost of railway conveyance.

In 1898 motor vans were put on some of these services for the first time and subsequently replaced horses on all important routes. These special parcel services were discontinued during the war and have never been re-established owing to new agreements on more favourable terms being made with the railway companies.

Rural Posts

So far I have dealt with main services to towns, and now I propose to look at the rural areas. Up to 1764 the position, broadly speaking, was as follows:—The Post Office carried letters to post towns only, but did not undertake to deliver them at the houses of the addressees, and in London only was there a local post—the penny post already referred to. In 1764 the Postmaster-General obtained authority to set up a penny post in any city or town. Such posts were only set up in about half a dozen of the largest towns in the Kingdom and at that time neither benefited nor were intended to benefit the rural districts.

Thus at the beginning of the last century there were no rural or village posts. Letters were conveyed to towns of considerable size and were conveyed thence by arrangement on behalf of the people living in the surrounding villages. Wealthy people with large correspondence made their own arrangements and sometimes Postmasters of a town undertook as a private venture the delivery of letters in the villages, receiving for themselves and not for the revenue a fixed sum on each letter.

In some cases " an allowance in aid of the post " was paid to small market towns out of public funds to arrange their own deliveries and gradually penny posts were established in towns and in villages of any importance, but even in 1838 it was stated that " there are districts in England considerably larger than the county of Middlesex into which the postman never enters."

In 1843 it was decided that the principle upon which rural posts should be established should be based simply upon the number of letters for each locality and that " all places the letters for which exceeded 100 a week should be deemed entitled to the privilege of a receiving office and a free delivery of letters." A delivery meant a daily delivery and the boundary of the " free delivery " was fixed by the Postmaster-General in each case. Extensions went on under this ruling until 1850 when it was decided that in future a post should be established when it would pay its way. The principle upon which this decision was based has lasted to the present day.

In 1855 Huddersfield had 2,760 letters delivered free every week while Halifax had 4,680, but I have not been able to get figures regarding Leeds.

In 1862 it was estimated that 94 per cent. of letters were delivered to the houses of the addressees, but it was not until 1897 in celebration of Queen Victoria's Diamond Jubilee that it was announced that a regular delivery of letters would be given to every house in the Kingdom. The frequency of delivery depended upon the number of letters and the cost of the service and this is still the regulation.

The Rural Postman now visits every homestead; he is a walking Post Office, and not only delivers and collects letters and parcels, but accepts registered letters, sells postal orders, pays pensions in many places, sells savings stamps and collects payments for C.O.D. parcels.

Travelling Post Offices

The first travelling sorting carriage was run as an experiment on 6th January, 1838, between Birmingham and Liverpool and was so successful that it was decided to make the Travelling Post Office a permanent institution. A special carriage was built and its exterior was fitted with apparatus for exchanging mail bags en route. This

apparatus was improved in 1848 by a Mr. John Dicker, a Post Office servant, and is substantially that in use at the present time. The first travelling post offices from London were established towards the end of 1838 and ran to Preston and back, leaving Euston Station at 11.0 a.m. and 8.30 p.m. daily. This was followed by the establishment of travelling post offices on almost every main line of railway and there are now 65 Travelling Post Offices.

All the early Travelling Post Offices consisted of one or two coaches attached to passenger trains, but in 1885 a special mail train was established on the London and North Western and Caledonian Railways to be devoted entirely to the mail service and ran between London and Aberdeen. This train still runs in both directions every night, consists solely of sorting carriages and bag tenders and is the most important mail train in Great Britain. It leaves London every night at 8.30 p.m. and reaches Aberdeen at 7.52 a.m. on the following day, while the upgoing train leaves Aberdeen at 3.25 p.m. and reaches London at 3.55 a.m.

A short description of the journey of the Up Special Travelling Post Office from Aberdeen to London may be of interest. Leaving Aberdeen at 3.25 p.m. with a Post Office staff of seven men the " Up Special " is the last train from the North which connects with the first delivery next day in the Midlands, London and the Home Counties. Before leaving it receives mails from the Buchan and Elgin branch lines which arrive too late to be sorted in the Aberdeen office. Between Aberdeen and Stirling mails are received at stopping stations and by apparatus from about 30 towns, and the staff is engaged upon sorting the letters for Edinburgh, Glasgow, Perth and Stirling and the areas served from them. At Law Junction the mail is joined by a Travelling Post Office from Glasgow with a staff of 24 men which has collected heavy mails from Glasgow, the neighbouring counties and the West Highlands. It then proceeds to Carlisle, picking up at Carstairs the Edinburgh and Midlothian mails. At Carlisle mails are received from about 60 towns in Northumberland, Cumberland and the South of Scotland and from a Travelling Post Office working from Ayr to Carlisle. On leaving Carlisle the Post Office staff has been increased to 50 men and the train is composed of eleven coaches, later in the journey increased to sixteen, five of which are used for letter sorting. Each of these coaches is allocated to a particular division of the country, and offices sending mails to the Travelling Post Office sort their letters according to these divisions so that immediately on receipt they can be transferred to the proper carriage. Preston and Warrington are centres for the exchange of mails to and from the great industrial towns of Lancashire. At Preston a Travelling Post Office brings in correspondence

from offices in West Cumberland, Westmorland and the Furness District. At Warrington connection is made with the Night Mails to Ireland, letters for Northern Ireland being transferred to a train connecting with the Stranraer-Larne steamer, while those for the Irish Free State are despatched to join the Irish mail from Euston at Chester.

Crewe is reached at 12.19 a.m. and here the Up Special despatches and receives an immense volume of mails. Crewe is the night mail centre of the country, and a large number of important mail trains are timed to meet there about midnight, so as to give connections to each other. Inside three hours thirteen Travelling Post Offices enter and leave Crewe station, including the night mails from London to Scotland and the up and down Irish mails via Holyhead. At Crewe the Up Special transfers to Travelling Post Offices working to Holyhead, Shrewsbury, Cardiff, Birmingham and York, some of which connect with still other Travelling Post Offices at their terminal stations, the correspondence it has collected during its journey from Aberdeen for Wales, the Black Country and part of the Midland and North-eastern counties. It takes on board from these Travelling Post Offices mails for the South which they have collected en route to Crewe.

The next stop is at Tamworth, which provides an outlet for the counties of Derby, Nottingham, Leicester and Lincoln, and gives a connection with a Travelling Post Office leaving Tamworth for Lincoln at 2.25 a.m. At Rugby, the last stop before Euston, the mails for Northamptonshire, Bedfordshire, and East Anglia are despatched and the final night mails from Birmingham for London and the South are received. Between Rugby and Euston the staff are busily engaged in the final sorting of the mails for London and beyond, while letters for the intermediate towns are despatched by mail-bag apparatus.

The mail with about 2,500 bags on board steams into Euston at 3.55 a.m. and finds a Post Office staff of some 40 or 50 men with as many vans awaiting it to transport its bags to the London delivery offices and railway termini. The London letters and those for many towns in the Home Counties which it brings are due for inclusion in the first delivery, and it also brings correspondence for four Travelling Post Offices leaving London between 4.45 a.m. and 5.40 a.m. for Bristol, Leeds, Bournemouth and Ipswich. To effect these connections a punctual arrival of the train and expeditious clearance from the station are essential. On a normal journey the Up Special deals with approximately 150,000 letters.

Packet Services

Until the time of Elizabeth the considerable written intercourse

which must have been required for the trade between England and places abroad was conducted solely by the merchants concerned; and although the Queen ordered by proclamation in 1591 that no letters were to be sent to or from foreign countries except by the Posts, it seems clear that this related only to their inland transmission. It was not until 1619 that an effort was made to place the maintenance of foreign postal communication by sea as well as by land in official hands. The office of " Postmaster for Foreign Parts out of the King's Domains " was established by James I, but it was not until 1633 that a through service between England and the Continent was established (Dover and Calais) by means of small boats, chiefly propelled by oars. These must be regarded as the first English Packets. The majority of the merchants, however, appear to have continued to find their own means for the sea conveyance of their letters.

In 1660 an Act of Parliament was passed which provided that homeward-bound ships were to give up all letters at the port of arrival. No pecuniary inducement was, it appears, first offered to the masters of ships to hand over the letters they brought, but about 1700 mention is found in official records of a payment to private Ship Masters of one penny for every letter handed to the Post Office in this country or in the colonies over sea. The Treasury questioned the Post Office as to the authority for making such payment. The answer was that there was no authority, but that as the existing law was insufficient to compel masters to deliver to the Post Office the letters they brought, the allowance of one penny a letter had been customary as an inducement. An Act of Parliament in Queen Anne's reign sanctioned the payment of this gratuity and conferred on the Postmaster-General a monopoly of the conveyance of letters by land or sea in the United Kingdom and Her Majesty's Colonies and Plantations in America and the West Indies. This Act imposed a penalty of £5 for every infringement and £100 for every week the offence was continued.

The Post Office services of Packet boats at this time were between—

Dover and Calais.
Harwich and Holland.
Holyhead and Kingstown.
Milford and Waterford.
Portpatrick and Donaghadie.

In 1688 a service was established from Falmouth to Corunna and shortly afterwards from Falmouth to the West Indies, North America and Lisbon. By the close of the eighteenth century Packets were sailing to almost every part of the world.

The Packets were either hired from the Commanders who ran them or were the property of the Crown. On the short sea services from Dover, Harwich, &c., the ships were about 70 tons burden, whereas on the ocean routes the tonnage ranged from 150 to 170 tons. Commissioners who inquired into the conduct of the Packet Services in 1788 expressed the view that " the Falmouth Packets should be 150 tons and their complement eighteen men "; and they stated " vessels of this description being fit to go to any part of the world."

Intermediary between the Postmaster-General and the Commanders of the Packets were agents appointed by the Department whose duty it was to see that the conditions of the contracts were duly fulfilled, especially as regards the equipment of the ships, the complement of the crews and the payment of wages. The contracts were for 7, 14 or 21 years and once a Packet was hired the Post Office paid all wear and tear and miscellaneous expenses and in case of capture by an enemy, paid also to the owner the *original cost* of the vessel. It is hardly to be wondered at that the Packet establishment became very costly and in the year ended 5th April, 1796, the expenses of Packet Boats were £77,600, of which £53,000 was for hire, wear and tear, £2,000 for arming the Packets and £10,800 for payments in respect of captured Packets.

Necessarily the agents were given much power, and it is clear that their power was grossly abused, especially at Falmouth. Commissioners of Inquiry reported in 1788 that the management of the Packets had become " an unbounded source of expense and speculation." The scandal must have lasted many years as in 1777 the King had spoken about the bad state of the Packet Boats and had ordered representations on the subject to be made to the Post Office. Although the Packets were hired from their Commanders the Commission of Inquiry found that in many cases officers of the Post Office were the actual owners of the Packets and that the Secretary, the principal officer of the Department, received in one way or another emoluments from the Packet Service which in the course of 17 years amounted to little less than £50,000. The outcome of this inquiry was the promulgation of an order prohibiting any person employed in the Post Office from being concerned directly or indirectly in the Packets or as agent for the owners.

Every Packet at this time ran the risk of being captured or sunk by privateers or by enemy's ships and all were armed. They often carried bullion as well as mails and therefore offered no mean temptation to sea rovers, but so well armed were they that they sometimes turned on their pursuers and beat them. There is evidence that more than once the Commanders looked for trouble on the high

seas in the hope of plunder—they became in fact pirates. To stop this the Commission of Inquiry recommended that every idea of defence should be relinquished and that the Packets should depend for their safety solely upon fast sailing. The Postmaster-General, however, decided not to go to this length, but " to make the experiment of not arming the Packets against an enemy in force but only against Row Boats and small Privateers." The Commanders were instructed to outsail an enemy and by no means to fight if an action could be avoided and if surrender became necessary the mails were to be sunk.

An official report in 1798 showed that the despatch of letters from the United Kingdom and more especially from London by private means had assumed vast proportions, although the practice was contrary to law. Most of the Coffee Houses in the City of London openly kept bags for the collection of letters to be forwarded by merchant ships, and private individuals secured considerable incomes from this source. Clearly a great part of the correspondence between England and the rest of the world was being conducted haphazard. Mails were not officially tendered to the Masters of private ships. The bag tendered by the proprietors of various collecting agencies were accepted or not at the option of the Master, and as there was no check on his proceedings it was at his discretion after having received a bag whether he delivered it or opened it and destroyed the contents. It was admitted that the Post Office could not enforce the laws, and as a result an Act (39 Geo. III) was passed legalising the despatch and receipt of letters in bags by ships other than Packets and the gratuity to Masters was increased to twopence per letter. Although a " Ship Letter Office " was established in London in 1799 for the collection of overseas letters private agencies continued to flourish notwithstanding repeated fines, and even as late as 1827 it was found that Coffee Houses were collecting letters with greater diligence than ever.

In 1837 it was enacted that the Postmaster-General was entitled to tender letter bags to the Masters of outward-bound vessels who, on their part, were bound to receive them and to deliver them on arrival at the port of destination without delay. The penalty for refusing to take a letter bag tendered by an officer of the Post Office was fixed at £200.

Up to this time ships were at the mercy of the wind and weather and the duration of any voyage was uncertain, but the advent of steamships brought punctual departures and comparatively short passages. In 1816 steam communication was established with Ireland by means of the ship " Hibernia " which ran between

Holyhead and Dublin. She was of 112 tons burden and was the pioneer of the principal cross-channel services.

Steam Packet services by Government-owned vessels were soon after established to Calais, Ostend, Hamburg and Gothenburg, but it became clear that outside means would have to be sought for the conveyance of mails by the ocean routes. In 1838 the steamship "Sirius" carried a mail to America and when it was found that she and another steamship the "Great Western" could cross the Atlantic in safety the public took advantage of the new and speedy channel for the despatch of correspondence and the mails rapidly increased in bulk. The owners of the steamships refused to carry the mails for the old gratuities and demanded half the postage. This demand was rejected by the Post Office and the owners refused to accept an offer of £100 for each outward trip and £100 for each homeward trip. While these negotiations hung fire the Admiralty in 1839 made a contract with Samuel Cunard, providing for the conveyance of mails for a subsidy of £55,000. The opinion was then held that the Packet Service should be designed not merely for the maintenance of postal communication, but for the purposes of a naval reserve both as regards ships and men. The Post Office fought for retention of its control over the Packet services, but had to give way.

It became the policy of the Government to induce commercial companies to build steamships, and with that view contracts were at first made for periods which would secure to the companies the full benefit of their original outlay.

In 1853 the annual charge for subsidies amounted to £853,000.

In 1860 the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty appealed to the Treasury to be relieved of the labour incidental to the control of the Packet Services, which had become so serious as to interfere with their other duties and they stated that the scheme for rendering Packets available for war purposes had been found to be incompatible with the nature of the service on which the vessels were employed. Control was re-transferred to the Post Office in April, 1860, and since that time payments for conveyance of mails overseas have been fixed by contracts and by negotiations between the Post Office and shipowners.

Overseas Postage Rates

Prior to 1875 the rates of postage for overseas communications were based on the combined cost of the sea and land conveyance and constantly varied. The cost of conveyance by land varied according to the number of countries to be crossed. Each country fixed its own charges, which were regulated by varying scales of

progression and units of weight. Postage rates with the Colonies were settled by negotiation and with foreign countries by treaty or convention, each country making the best bargain it could. The negotiation of so many schemes was as tiresome as the process of carrying them out was cumbrous. The postage had to be calculated on each letter or packet and credit awarded at the proper scale to each Administration concerned in the conveyance. An inevitable consequence of these complicated operations was delay at every office of exchange, so serious as almost to neutralise the saving of time afforded by railways and steamships. Some change became imperative. In September, 1874, a Congress of representatives of the chief European countries, of the United States and of Egypt met at Berne and signed an agreement constituting the Postal Union. It came into force on 1st July, 1875. Under the provisions of the new Convention:—

(*a*) A common regime was accepted throughout the whole postal service.

(*b*) Freedom of transit by land and sea was guaranteed by every country to every other country.

(*c*) Rates of postage were made uniform, that is to say, in future every country was to charge a uniform rate for each category of correspondence addressed to other contracting countries.

(*d*) No charge of any kind was to be collected in the country of origin from the sender of correspondence or in the country of destination from the addressee, other than that prescribed by the regulations.

(*e*) The onus for providing for the conveyance of mails was to rest on the country of origin, all intermediate services used by such country to be paid for at fixed rates and upon the basis of periodical statistics.

The effect of the new system was beneficial alike to the public and to the Post Office, and in a short time nearly the whole of the civilised world was included in it.

Subsequent Postal Congresses extended and improved postal services and introduced new services such as Parcel Post, the exchange of Money Orders, &c., &c. An international Bureau at Berne was set up as a clearing house for the liquidation of accounts of all kinds.

Air Mails

The first regular Air Mail service established in this country was between London and Paris and was inaugurated on 10th November, 1919, and regular air mails are now working to practically every European country, to Egypt, India, Burmah and South Africa. It is expected that during the present year (1934) the India, Burmah

mail will be extended to Australia. The time saved by air mails covering long distances is enormous—7 days to Bombay, 6½ to Khartoum, 7 to Cape Town, between 11 and 23 on letters to Nairobi and 11 to Salisbury. The services are generally worked by Imperial Airways under subsidy.

Modern Developments

So far I have dealt witth the history of His Majesty's mails and now I will say a few words regarding some modern developments in the postal service.

During the war owing to the shortage of man power (83,000 Post Office servants joined the forces) it was necessary to make drastic reductions in postal facilities and after the Armistice it became clear that restoration of services could only be made gradually and that reorganisation on a more scientific basis was essential to meet the changed conditions and general higher costs. Department Committees were set up to investigate various questions and numerous radical changes resulted. Amongst these was the establishment of all inland sorting on a county basis. This proposal was first put forward by Sir C. Sanderson, Controller of the London Postal Service, who was at one time Postmaster-Surveyor of Leeds. In short, the public were asked to use the name of the county in the address of all letters, and a small number of suitably situated offices were selected upon which correspondence for stated counties was circulated for distribution. It was inevitable that exceptions had to be made to this county circulation scheme as the selected " forwarding offices " could not dispose of correspondence for all places in the counties they were to serve without delaying some items, but by the establishment of new mails and new road services it became possible to reduce the exceptions to a comparatively small number. Prior to this sorting, apart from the local sorting, was done mainly on a railway basis and it was necessary for a sorter to memorise very long lists of places—many of them distant insignificant towns—correspondence for which had to be specially treated. The county scheme greatly facilitated sorting, especially in London, where such an immense volume of correspondence is posted and has to be dealt with in a limited time.

Another development was the introduction of sorting fittings of standard types which were adopted after full investigation and experiment by a Joint Committee of Official and Staff representatives. This included the substitution of sorting fittings of box type for the open shelf tables and necessitated the refitting of all sorting offices in the country. The new fittings for all kinds of work were designed to reduce to a minimum the labour of sorting, they allowed a much

larger percentage of items to be finally sorted at the first handling, and the assignment of boxes or divisions to selections for towns and counties was arranged in each office so that the heaviest volume of correspondence is sorted to the boxes which are most easily reached.

In 1922 to meet the public demand for cheaper postage for non-urgent matter a ½d. postage rate was introduced applicable to circulars, invoices and generally what is classed as " printed matter," and it was announced that such items posted after 3 p.m. would not be due to connect with the night mail despatches or the first delivery on the following day. This was intended to give the public the advantage of a very cheap rate and to reduce the volume of correspondence which had to be dealt with during the evening pressure period. As a result it became possible at the largest offices to employ a smaller number of sorters during the peak pressure period, and to convert a considerable number of night sorting duties into day duties commencing at 6 a.m. or 7 a.m. There has, however, always been difficulty in restricting the posting time for this class of correspondence in small towns, and in country areas where there are no collections about 3 p.m., and in consequence no restrictions on the posting of this class of correspondence are in force in such districts. Even in other towns owing to pressure from Chambers of Commerce and like bodies the time for posting has been extended from 3 p.m. to 5 p.m.

Since the war also the use of mechanical aids in Sorting Offices has been largely extended. Moving belts are now in use in all the largest Sorting Offices for conveying letters, packets, parcels and bags from one position to another, while in the largest parcel offices all parcels are conveyed by belts from the mail platform to an upper floor where they are given a primary sorting in gravity shutes and moving bands which distribute them to the various divisions on the floor below for secondary sorting. This equipment saves an immense amount of labour.

The increased use of stamp-cancelling machines, which record the number of letters passing through them and thus provide a traffic guide for staffing purposes, electric trucks and other mechanical devices, make it possible to deal with the ever-growing volume of correspondence in a restricted time. Stamp-vending machines which are now so general have also been introduced since the war.

But perhaps the greatest agent in accelerating the delivery of correspondence and affording improved facilities to the public over wide areas has been the introduction of the Post Office motor services. Throughout the length and breadth of the land motor vans and motor cycles owned by the Post Office are now to be found conveying loads of mails, delivering and collecting letters and parcels and carrying

postmen expeditiously to points where they commence their deliveries. There are 4,600 of these Post Office vehicles in use and the number is still growing. They are mostly driven by postmen and except in outlying places are maintained by Post Office mechanics and repaired in Post Office workshops. These motor services, besides making it possible to give much better facilities to the public, have saved the Department hundreds of thousands of pounds per annum.

Other developments have been the introduction of a Cash-on-Delivery service for parcels which has proved very popular, the affording of facilities for the transmission by post of Literature for the Blind, the introduction of franking machines which are set by the Post Office and avoid the use of stocks of stamps by large firms, the introduction of a Sample Post and of Business Reply Post Cards, the postage on which is paid by the addressee after receipt. The latter service is growing rapidly and there are now 190 firms in Leeds licensed to use it.

Another interesting development was the construction of the Post Office underground railway in London. This undertaking had been begun in 1914 and work had to be suspended on the outbreak of the war. High costs deferred the resumption of work for some years after the Armistice and it was not opened until 1927. It runs from the Eastern District Post Office, Whitechapel, to Paddington, and passes under seven important Sorting Offices as well as under Liverpool Street and Paddington Railway Stations, having connections with all by lifts and chutes. The trains are electrically driven without drivers or guards on board and are operated entirely by automatic means under the control of a switchman at each station. The gauge is two feet and a train consists of three steel wagons each holding half a ton of mails. Its use avoids the delay to mails previously caused by fogs and traffic blocks.

There is one other important development I would like to refer to, and that is the setting up of Whitley Councils, which of course are not confined to the Post Office. There are two Departmental Whitley Councils in the Post Office—one representing the clerical and manipulative grades and one representing engineering and technical staffs—and there is a network of office committees in sub-departments, Head Post Offices and local engineering offices. They provide regularised machinery for discussing matters affecting the staff and their conditions of service, and they have been a pronounced success. They have, to a great extent, substituted personal discussion for the voluminous and inconclusive correspondence of an earlier day.

Post Office Organisation

The Post Office is, in fact, as well as in name, a Revenue Department and it is fairly safe to assume that future Chancellors of the

Exchequer will endeavour to secure that it remains so—at any rate to some extent. The Post Office is one of the largest commercial or public utility undertakings in the country and while finance is an important and in many questions a dominant factor its principal function is and will continue to be, to provide the services which the public require and to conduct them with the maximum of efficiency.

While the broad aims of the Post Office organisation and that of a commercial undertaking are much the same, viz., efficiency combined with economy, the conditions under which they work are widely different. The Postmaster-General has nothing approaching the autocratic powers and undivided control that a Board of Directors exercises over the affairs of a company. He is subject to the overriding authority of Parliament and the Cabinet and, on many questions, of the Treasury. His expenditure, in common with that of other departments, is governed by the necessity of balancing the National Budget. Each question must be decided not merely with regard to its own merits, but by reference to the possible reactions which it may produce elsewhere, and every decision must be taken with the knowledge that it may be dragged into the arena of public discussion. The Postmaster-General may at any time be asked why a telephone has been refused in one village or a pillar box in another, or why in some remote district Mr. A. has been promoted in preference to Mr. B. and Departmental records must be forthcoming to enable him to sustain or, if necessary, to overrule the decision of his subordinates.

The General Headquarters of the Post Office is at St. Martin's-le-Grand. Here all matters of policy and questions of more than local application are dealt with, regulations and instructions are framed for the conduct of the various services and the guidance of the executive officers in charge of them and a general managerial control is maintained over the whole organisation. By an elaborate system of delegation, wide discretionary powers are conferred upon local officers, varying in extent with their status. These powers have to be exercised in conformity with the standards of service and other instructions prescribed by headquarters, and are usually subject to some definite limitations such as a maximum capital or annual cost, beyond which headquarters' sanction is required.

The Postmaster-General is a Minister of the Crown, appointed by the Government of the day, and he may or may not be a member of the Cabinet. He is responsible for the policy of the Department and is its spokesman in Parliament. His deputy is the Assistant Postmaster-General and he is assisted in his administration by a Departmental Board over which he presides. The Assistant Postmaster-General, the Director-General, the Deputy-Director-General and the heads of various services are members of the Board.

The permanent head of the Post Office and the Postmaster-General's principal adviser is the Director-General. He is assistd by the Deputy-Director-General and is responsible for the whole organisation of the Post Office and the efficient working of its services.

For administrative purposes the Post Office is divided into three main departments:—

The Postal Services,
The Telegraph and Telephone,
and
The Personnel Departments,

supplemented by the allied departments of the Headquarters organisation, viz.:—

Accountant-General's Department,
Engineering Department,
Public Relations Department,
Savings Bank Department,
Solicitor's Department,
Stores Department.

These departments, while fully responsible within their definite functions, have the duty of co-operating with the administrative departments, which are responsible for the direction of policy and co-ordination.

Next in rank to the Deputy-Director-General come the Director of Postal Services who controls the mail services, both inland and foreign, the Director of Telegraphs and Telephones who is in charge of the Telegraph, Telephone and Wireless services, and the Director of Establishments and Personnel who is responsible for the regulation and remuneration of personnel, recruitment, promotion and the provision and maintenance of buildings.

The Comptroller and Accountant-General is a most important official with very extensive powers. He is appointed by the Postmaster-General with the concurrence of the Chancellor of the Exchequer and he is responsible for the Post Office accounting system in all its branches. Cash receipts and payments passing through the Post Office accounts amount to above £1,200,000,000 a year.

To pass to the local establishments, the metropolitan and provincial organisations are fundamentally different. In London the concentration of an immense mass of work within a small area makes a functional organisation possible and economical and the three main services, posts, telegraphs and telephones have separate organisations, each under its own Controller who is directly in touch with the Secretariat. The staff of the London Postal Service numbers about 33,000.

In the provinces, unlike London, the administrative boundaries are geographical and not functional. The country is divided into thirteen Surveyors' Districts, and nine of the largest cities—viz., Birmingham, Glasgow, Liverpool, Manchester, Leeds, Bristol, Newcastle, Sheffield and Belfast, with the areas surrounding them form separate districts each in charge of a Postmaster-Surveyor. There is a Secretary to the Post Office in Scotland with limited powers directly responsible to Headquarters.

It may be of interest here to recall that the title of " Surveyor " as used in the Post Office dates from 1715 when six Surveyors were appointed to measure up the post roads in order to fix accurately the postage charges which were then based on distance but they were also to inspect Post Offices, to effect improvements in the services, to check accounts and guard the revenue.

The Postmaster-Surveyor or Surveyor is responsible for the Post Office services within his District—postal, telegraph and telephone—apart from engineering which is under the charge of a Superintending Engineer. He is vested with considerable independent powers of delegation from Headquarters and reports direct to Headquarters on matters upon which superior authority is required. For the telephone work of the district the Surveyor has for his chief assistant the District Manager, who has a travelling staff of his own.

Each Surveyor's and Postmaster-Surveyor's District is divided into a varying number of areas each under the control of a Head Postmaster who is responsible to the Surveyor. The Head Postmaster is directly responsible for his own office and for the inspection and supervision of the Branch offices and Sub-Offices within the Head Office area.

Conclusion.

Owing to lack of time I have been unable to refer to many auxiliary services such as Express Delivery, Railway Letters, payment of pensions, sale of licences and Inland Revenue stamps, or to refer to the other great business carried on, but it might interest you to know that 57,000,000 registered letters and parcels are dealt with annually, that over 200,000,000 War, Widows', Orphans' and Old Age Pensions are paid annually, that 212,000,000 Postal Orders are issued and paid each year, that deposits remaining in the Savings Bank are over £300,000,000, and that Savings Certificates remaining invested number 380,000,000

The total staff of the Post Office is 228,000 and the profit of the Post Office for the year ended 31st March, 1933, was £10,792,000.

Government in Australia

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I. The Structure of Government

(a) *The Constitution*

The Imperial Act of 1900, which united the people of Australia in one indissoluble Federal Commonwealth under the Crown of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, was the consummation of fifty years' experience, and of many years' agitation. And it was a compromise between conflicting local patriotisms and national sentiment, between the desire for domestic independence and the necessity for united action in matters of common concern. In the result, an economy in which there were six separate and somewhat aloof colonies, each with their own parliaments, judicial system, and tariff, was replaced by a Federation comprising a Commonwealth Government and six State Governments. To the Commonwealth Government was assigned certain defined powers in matters of common concern, *e.g.*, tariffs, defence, and currency, while the States retained the residue and, at the same time, preserved their identity as self-governing communities. While each State retained its former Constitution, except in so far as it was altered or controlled by the Commonwealth Constitution, the people in each State, as well as of Australia, also became subject to the Commonwealth Constitution as the fundamental law for both the Commonwealth and the States.

Australians quickly found that a Federal system requires a high degree of political capacity, infinite patience, and a willingness to compromise. Conflicts between State and Federal loyalties are frequent, and these have not been rendered less acute by the realisation that the growing financial supremacy of the Commonwealth is gradually attenuating State independence. Furthermore, in place of Parliamentary Sovereignty confirmed by the Imperial Colonial Laws Validity Act, 1865, the people had to readjust themselves to a situation in which the High Court of Australia repeatedly declared ***ultra vires*** measures and actions of the Commonwealth and State legislatures and Executive Councils. And amendments of the Constitution by popular referendum have proved exceedingly difficult. Proposed laws for the alteration of the Constitution have been sub-

mitted to the electors on seven occasions, but only one major alteration—that affecting the financial relations between the States and the Commonwealth—has been approved. Two other minor alterations have been made. The major alterations which have been rejected concerned the trade and commerce powers and the industrial arbitration powers of the Commonwealth: subjects of constant conflict. Liberal, Labour, and Nationalist parties have each had their proposals rejected, even when the electorate seemed to favour their general policy. It has been thought that the rejection has been due sometimes to asking too much, at others to a confusion about the possible effects of the alteration. Again, there has been a fear that the Federal authorities might abuse any additional power, or there has been dissatisfaction with the administrative methods employed in the exercise of existing powers. But shot through every referendum campaign and influencing every decision has been the anxiety lest any extension of Federal powers might reduce the States to the position of mere camp-followers to the Federal authorities.

(b) *The Legislature*

Both in the Commonwealth and the States, the system of Government has been modelled upon that of England. With the exception of Queensland where there is a Single Chamber, the principle of a bi-cameral legislature has been adopted, and the Parliaments comprise the Crown and two Houses of the Legislature. In the Commonwealth the House of Representatives comprises members elected by equal constituencies from within each State, although the less populous States, *e.g.*, Tasmania and Western Australia, are guaranteed five members by the Constitution. The Senate, which was intended to act as a States' House, consists of six members elected by each of the several States voting as a single constituency. There are thus 36 Senators, and the Constitution requires that the House of Representatives shall have, as nearly as practicable, twice the number of Senators. The tenure of office for the House of Representatives is three years, all members retiring together, and for the Senate, six years, one-half retiring every three years. The House of Representatives is presided over by a Speaker, and the Senate by a President, chosen on party lines for each Parliament by the members of the respective Houses. In the States, the Legislative Assembly is elected by equal constituencies (though frequently country constituencies have a smaller quota than those of the metropolitan areas) for three years, and except in New South Wales and Queensland, the Legislative Council is elected by larger constituencies for six years. In some States, *e.g.*, Victoria and Tasmania, a property qualification is required both of candidates and electors for the Legislative Council. Otherwise in all the States and the Commonwealth, the franchise is

exercised by all adults without discrimination on the ground of sex. In New South Wales the Legislative Council has hitherto consisted of persons nominated to it by the Government of the day. As "swamping" (that is, the nomination in batches of large numbers of members to ensure a majority favourable to the Government of the day) has been resorted to several times in recent years, a reform was approved by the electors in May, 1933, by which the nominee system was replaced by one in which 60 Councillors are elected by the members of the Legislative Assembly and the Legislative Council sitting together. The tenure of the new members of the Legislative Council will be twelve years, one-quarter retiring every three years. With the exception of South Australia and Tasmania Legislative Councillors are not paid, but members of the popular Assemblies, as well as members of both Houses of the Federal Parliament are paid.

The powers of the two Houses of the Legislature throughout Australia are practically concurrent, except that the Lower House (the popular Chamber) alone can originate Money Bills. From this fact it is natural that relations between the two Houses in all the Parliaments should often be strained. Where, in the earlier history of the Colonies, the disagreements arose over broad matters of policy, to-day they usually spring from the advanced social and economic tendencies of Labour Governments. It is said, with some truth, that Legislative Councils thwart the efforts of Labour Governments to improve the conditions of the masses, and consequently it is the policy of the Labour Party to abolish the Legislative Councils. This policy has so far succeeded only in Queensland. Where deadlocks occur the remedy in the Federal Parliament is a double dissolution, but a more satisfactory way has been found in the recent New South Wales reforms. In that State, when a deadlock occurs between the Assembly and the Council, including disagreements concerning taxation and Money Bills, the Government can submit the matter in dispute to a popular referendum, and if the people approve the Assembly can enact the law without the assent of the Legislative Council, if it still refuses to pass the measure.

(c) *The Executive*

In the Commonwealth, the King is represented by a Governor-General, and in the States by Governors. The Commonwealth Government has nothing to do with the appointment of State Governors, which is a matter for negotiation between the respective State Governments and the Dominions Office in London. Since the Imperial Conference of 1926 the status of the Governor-General has been altered to that of the personal representative of the King; but

in the States the powers of the Governors are unchanged. In their cases they act under the instructions given them upon appointment, as well as in accordance with the Letters Patent creating their office, and would seem to retain a personal discretion in certain matters in which discretion has now been entirely withdrawn from the Governor-General. Otherwise the Governors, like the Governor-General, act upon the advice of their Executive Councils.

Constitutionally, the members of the Executive Council are chosen and summoned by the Governor or Governor-General, and hold office during his pleasure. In practice, the King's representative chooses as Prime Minister or Premier the party leader who can command a majority in the popular house of the Legislature, and the latter recommends for appointment the remaining members of the Executive Council. The Labour Party in Australia has broken away from the tradition that the Prime Minister or Premier has the right to select his own colleagues, and the practice is for the Parliamentary Labour Party caucus to elect the members who are to hold Ministerial office, the Premier having the right only to distribute the portfolios amongst those elected.

(d) *The Cabinet*

The Executive Council comprises the Ministers and the King's representative, and is the formal or constitutional agency of government. The operative instrument is the Cabinet, all the members of which are also members of one or other of the two Houses of Parliament. Usually the greater proportion of the Ministers are members of the popular House. They are paid a salary fixed by the Constitution, in lieu of their allowance as a Member of Parliament. While the principles of Ministerial responsibility and of responsible government have been adopted throughout Australia, the principle of Cabinet solidarity is being challenged by the practices of the Labour Party. Ministers hold office only so long as they can command the support of a majority of the members of the popular House, and they are responsible for all the acts done by themselves and officials of the Crown. But Labour Ministers are tending to claim responsibility to their party and not to the Premier and this may have important reactions upon the whole system of Cabinet Government.

In many other respects Australian Cabinets tend to belie the conventional descriptions by text writers of the English Cabinet system. There was a time when parties were so stable that our experience did approximate to those descriptions, but since the war the turn over of members has been so great that almost every Cabinet contains men who are not only new to Ministerial rank, but new to Parliament also. This in itself has had unsettling effects upon the

traditions and practices of Cabinet Government, and has accelerated the tendency to change. When men easily attain Ministerial rank without having had the discipline of responsibility either in or out of Parliament, they are inclined to under-estimate the value of conventions and traditions as well as the need for deliberateness in administration.

(e) *The Political Parties*

It is usually contended that, for the most effective working of the British Parliamentary system, there should be no more than two parties. Australia largely conforms to this condition, for in recent years the parties have tended to align themselves on the basis of Labour and anti-Labour affiliations. The anti-Labour parties, however, divide on the basis of rural and urban sympathies, and occasionally the differences are so acute as to preclude co-operation against their mutual opponent, the Labour Party. At the moment, the Labour Party is also divided into two main camps, although there are indications that still a third group may be organised. The two main Labour groups divide partly on the ground of personalities, and partly on the ground of State autonomy as against Federal control. In State politics, each Labour Party is autonomous but, in the Federal sphere, the State parties surrender control to the Federal body. Since the ascendancy of Mr. J. T. Lang, leader of the New South Wales Labour Party, a strong party has declared its allegiance to his leadership and challenged the right of the Federal body to interfere in its affairs. But a section of the Lang party has now declared for Socialization of the means of production, distribution and exchange, and dissatisfied with the rejection of their platform by the Lang executive is exploring the possibility of launching a separate group. Outside the main parties, there are Communist and other groups which " run " candidates for election, but these are quite negligible as parties though some of the leaders exert more influence than their political strength warrants.

Since the war, political contests have been waged with an intensity and a bitterness in some of the States, especially New South Wales, which has left an indelible mark upon party methods. Labour parties have exhibited a hypersensitiveness to criticism and have visited by expulsion any indication by members of independence in thought and action. Labour members of Parliament are regimented and disciplined, and in consequence, the pledge and the doctrine of " solidarity " have acquired a new significance. This attitude has not been without its influence upon the anti-Labour parties, and, though there is still some freedom of thought and action and voting permitted to their members the " free lance " and independent

member have disappeared in some States, and will probably not survive long in the others.

(f) *The Judicial System*

The judicial power of the Commonwealth is vested in certain Courts mentioned in the Constitution. These are the High Court, and such other Courts as the Federal Parliament creates or invests with Federal jurisdiction. Within Australia, the High Court is head of both the Federal and State judicial systems. It has both an original and an appellate jurisdiction. As an Australian Court of Appeal, it can entertain appeals from the Supreme Court of any State, or from any other Court of a State from which at the establishment of the Commonwealth an appeal lay to the Privy Council. In cases where appeals of this nature are taken to the High Court, there is no appeal as of right to the Privy Council. There may be such an appeal where it is a question of the limits *inter se* of the constitutional powers of the Commonwealth and those of any State or States, or as to the limits *inter se* of the constitutional powers of any two or more States, if the High Court certifies that the question is one which ought to be determined by the Privy Council. There may also be an appeal in other cases, whether they involve constitutional questions or questions of Federal or State Law, if the Privy Council itself grants special leave.

Some years ago there was a feeling of resentment against the system of appeal to the Privy Council, but since the war this attitude has undergone a marked change. It can be traced to the altered interpretation of the Australian Constitution by the High Court involving the abandonment of the doctrine of " implied powers " and of the " immunity of State instrumentalities " which had been applied for over twenty years. It is also partly due to the growing bitterness of political feeling which has led to the fear that appointments to the judiciary might not follow traditional lines. In these circumstances it has been felt that the right of appeal to the Privy Council might prove to be a more than ordinary safeguard.

The Justices of the High Court, or other Federal Courts are appointed for life by the Executive Council, and cannot be removed except on an address from both Houses of Parliament in the same session praying for removal on the ground of proved misbehaviour or incapacity.

In all the States, there are Supreme Courts, District Courts, and Courts of Petty Sessions, as well as special Courts, such as Land Courts, and Industrial Courts. Judges are appointed by the Executive Councils of the several States, and the tenure is similar to that of the Federal Justices, although in some of the States, *e.g.*, New

South Wales, a retiring age of 70 years is fixed. In the minor courts, *e.g.*, Courts of Petty Sessions and Magistrates' Courts, the magistrates are subject to Public Service laws both as to salary, qualifications, and tenure. In these cases, the age of retirement is usually 65 years. The Australian Courts both in the higher and lower jurisdictions have finely maintained the high traditions which have characterised the English judiciary, on whose standards and practices they have carefully modelled themselves.

(g) *Local Government*

Whereas in older countries, local government was deeply rooted and comparatively vigorous before the central governments established themselves, in Australia local government made a tardy beginning after the main structure of the central governments had been fabricated. The needs of the sparsely settled communities in the early days of Australian history were provided by the central governments, and as population increased, the habit developed of leaving matters as they were. In consequence even such services as roads, sanitation, and education continued to be a function of the central government. After fifty years or so, the central government sought to relieve itself of the expense of some of these services and timorously embarked upon a policy of creating local authorities. In some of the States there is a fairly good record of local activity, but in New South Wales it was not until 1906 that the greater part of the settled rural areas were incorporated for purposes of local government. And even then, hardly any of the functions, such as education, public health, police, and charity, which everywhere in older countries are the concern of local authorities, were devolved upon the local governing authorities. In practice, the local bodies are confined to purely domestic matters such as streets, pavements, sanitation, and parks. Water Supply and Main Roads are usually in the hands of State-appointed *ad hoc* bodies. Education, charity and police are State functions, so too are transport and hospitals. Municipal trading is confined to supplying light and power, and there are a few municipal tramways and water works. The capital cities of the Commonwealth stand outside the ordinary system of local government, which is uniform for the whole area within each State. But even in the capital cities, the extent of local control suffers sadly in comparison with municipal effort in other parts of the world.

Again, there is no hierarchical structure of units as elsewhere. We have in the main two units, municipalities and shires. The municipalities are the urban units, and the shires are the rural units. Both are governed by Councils, presided over respectively by Mayors or Presidents, elected by and from the Council with a yearly tenure.

The Councillors and the Aldermen are elected for three years by electors who usually must have an owner or an occupation qualification. In New South Wales, and in Queensland, there is practically an adult franchise, subject to a residential qualification of usually six months. In some of the capital cities, *e.g.*, Melbourne, the English system of Lord Mayor, Aldermen, and Councillors obtains, the aldermen being co-opted by the Councillors and having a different tenure. Councils are much smaller in numbers than in other countries, the fewer functions making large membership unnecessary. Only one of the capital cities, viz., Brisbane, has established a Greater City Council, and in that case a unified system has been adopted. It also is in the unique position of having a general grant of powers, although every other local authority in Australia is rigidly restricted to the specific powers and functions prescribed in the Charter or Local Government Statute. In discharging those functions, the Councils are practically untrammelled by the central government, though the latter retains powers of inspection, approval to borrowing, and to altering areas and rating limits. Rates are usually levied on the unimproved capital value of the land, though for some services, *e.g.*, water supplies, the rate is on the assessed annual value. Ecclesiastical property is usually exempt from rates provided it is used for public worship or educational purposes. Officials of local authorities are not under the control of the central government, although in New South Wales, there is a central *ad hoc* authority which examines candidates for certificates of qualification to act as Town Clerk, Auditor, Engineer, and Overseer of Works respectively. Unless a person has such a certificate he may not be appointed to a position by a local authority. But there are no qualifications demanded of the remaining officials, all of whom are appointed by the respective Councils.

There has been little experimentation either in regard to areas or methods of administration in local government in Australia, and there is no inclination to use local authorities as agents for the central government even for services such as maintenance of public buildings, *e.g.*, schools, post offices, and court-houses, for which they have the necessary resources.

II. The Machinery of Government

When the Federal system was established in 1901 certain services, such as the Customs Department, the Post Office and Defence units were immediately transferred to the Commonwealth Government which thereupon proceeded to organise its administrative machinery. In course of time, besides the Treasury, the Works Department, and the legal offices, there were added Pensions, Taxation, Navigation,

Health, Territories, and other departments. But it never seemed to have occurred to the original Commonwealth authorities that it might have been possible to continue to use the State officials as agents for the performance of Federal duties. Some departments might not have lent themselves to that method of organisation, but others undoubtedly did. Generally speaking they conform faithfully to Bagehot's description of the English Service of his day. " The offices have never, since they were made, been arranged with any reference to one another; or rather, they were never made, but grew as each could." That they grew to some stature can be realised from the fact that at the 30th June, 1932, there were more than 32,000 persons employed by the Commonwealth Government (under the jurisdiction of the Commonwealth Public Service Board), and that number is more than 5,000 less than in 1929.

Paralleling many of the Federal Departments, and in several instances extending beyond them are the State departments, employing in round figures about 200,000 persons. The number is swollen by reason of the inclusion of Railway and Tramway employees, police, and teachers, because as has already been remarked, transport, education, and police protection are provided by the State.

Throughout the Commonwealth, the administrative activities are organised mainly on the basis of the services to be performed, amongst departments, for each of which a Minister of the Crown is responsible. Under the Minister is the Permanent Head of the department, with the title of Secretary, Under-Secretary, Director, or Comptroller as the case may be. And responsible to him are the heads of Branches, sub-departments, and sections. While the political heads vary with changes of government, the permanent heads and the officials under him have permanency of tenure. The bulk of the personnel employed in the principal departments is subject to public service enactments. That is to say, there are Public Service Acts which constitute Boards of Management and which prescribe conditions as to qualifications, tenure, and remuneration of officials. These Boards represent a distinctive Australian contribution to public service organisation. They combine the functions of the English Civil Service Commission of examination and recruitment, and of the English Treasury of organisation and management. They differ from their American prototype by their higher prestige, and the greater immunity of their decisions from political interference.

But not all departments are under the immediate direction of Ministers of the Crown, and not all the staff is subject to public service enactments. Public utilities such as Railways, Water and Sewerage, Harbours, Electricity, and Main Roads are generally organised under

quasi-independent *ad hoc* Commissions. Others like the Commonwealth Bank are almost wholly independent of political control, and stand quite outside the conventional government system. In all these cases, the staff is under the control of the respective Boards or Commissions which lay down their own rules for recruitment and organisation. But all alike, Public Service Boards, and *ad hoc* Commissions, share with the Arbitration Court the determination of rates of remuneration, and sometimes the conditions of employment, for the great bulk of the personnel, a duality of control which is often irritating.

For all but a small number of Public Service appointments, the principle of open competition is adopted. The competition may be either a written or a *viva voce* examination, coupled with the scrutiny of testimonials. The *viva voce* competition is usually adopted for professional and for technical or manipulative positions. For the higher personnel, *e.g.*, members of boards and commissions, the appointments are made by the Government of the day. The pressure of public opinion alone can determine that these appointments shall be on the basis of merit and proved ability. Recently there has been a tendency especially in New South Wales for the Labour Party to give these positions to avowed political supporters, a development which created considerable unsettlement both in the Public Service and outside it.

For practically all clerical positions the method of recruitment is invariably by written examinations. And furthermore the appointment is usually to the lowest grade in that division. That is to say, the governing policy in recruitment is from below, and the defects of this method are only slightly tempered by a system of internal promotion tests. Some slight recognition has been given to the principle that higher administrative positions demand special qualifications by requiring in some of the services, notably that of New South Wales, that officers shall prove by examination that they possess them. But at best this method is only a poor substitute for the English system of objectively recruiting its administrative division by an exclusive initial examination.

The development of associations of civil servants has given prominence to the political rights of public servants. There are two aspects of this problem: the activities of groups, and those of individuals. Considerable latitude is allowed to individuals to engage in political activities, but only in New South Wales and Western Australia is it possible for an officer to contest an election, without resigning his official position. If elected, he must resign from the Public Service. If unsuccessful he may resume his official duties.

In the case of Federal servants, and of those of the other States, an officer must resign when he nominates for election.

The attitude of groups of officials differs according to whether they are clerical or professional officers, or engaged in manipulative occupations. In the latter case, their associations are usually affiliated with the Labour Party. The other organisations officially declare an aloofness from all political parties, although they are prepared to make the most of their voting strength to bargain with different political parties for concessions. There is nothing in Australia corresponding to the regulations promulgated under the British Trade Disputes and Trade Unions Act, 1927, although Section 66 of the Commonwealth Public Service Act deals with the position of Federal officers in relation to strikes.

The world economic depression fell with great severity upon Australian Governments, which in turn effected many economies, especially in rates of remuneration, in the several public services. But although there have been some protests by staff associations against the manner in which the salary reductions were made, the position has been, on the whole, cheerfully accepted, and the Public Service has emerged with enhanced prestige from the test to which it was submitted.

Notes

Recent Legal Decisions Affecting Public Administration

By F. A. Enever, M.A., LL.D.

SYNOPSIS

Vehicular Approaches over Footpaths ; Negligence ; Entertainments ; Poor Law Settlement; Superannuation Scheme ; Surcharge Appeals ; Differential Rents ; Public Authorities Protection ; Alteration of Boundaries of County Districts ; County Valuations ; Drainage Rate ; Clearance Order ; Road Charges under Private Street Works Act.

Vehicular Approaches over Footpaths

The case of Marshall (since deceased) and another *v.* Blackpool Corporation has now come before the House of Lords on appeal and has resulted in a decision in favour of the original plaintiffs. The decisions of the Divisional Court in favour of the plaintiffs and of the Court of Appeal in favour of the defendant Corporation are reported in XI Public Administration, 105, 405.

Lord Atkin, in giving judgment, referred to the desirability, in order to construe s. 62 of the Blackpool Improvement Act, 1879, of considering what the rights of the appellants (the frontagers) would be if no such enactment were in existence. The owner of land adjoining a highway had, he said, a right of access to the highway from any part of his premises. The rights of the public to pass along the highway were subject to that right of access, just as the rights of access were subject to the rights of the public, and must be exercised subject to the general obligations as to nuisance and the like imposed on a person using the highway. Apart from any statutory provision, there was no obligation on an adjoining owner to fence his property from the highway. As far as his Lordship could see, s. 62 of the Act of 1879 did not even purport to affect the right of the adjoining owner at all. It was directed to works and to works only. The place of the communication must be stated to enable the Corporation to judge what provision was made for kerbing and for a paved crossing and to consider the dimensions and gradients of the necessary works. The Corporation might consider the nature of the proposed user in order to judge how the way should be constructed, both as to surface and kerbing and in relation to the gradient. If the actual works, either by the steepness of the gradient, or the depth of the side kerbing, would be likely to affect the safety of pedestrians on the footway or of vehicles on the roadway, there seemed to him no reason why they should not take those factors into account. But they were not entitled to take into account questions of safety and convenience of the public except in so far as affected by the nature of the works. They might not, therefore, take into account the nature and extent of the proposed user of a communication in itself safe and sufficient for that user. (*The Times*, 26th June, 1934 ; 177 *Law Times*, 453 ; 98 *Justice of the Peace*, 445.)

Negligence

In Liddle *v.* North Riding of Yorkshire County Council the Court of Appeal allowed the defendant Council's appeal against an award of £1,562 damages in respect of injuries sustained to the plaintiff, a boy aged six years, in falling off a 4 ft. 6 in. wall along a road to which the Council were making improvements. Against the wall was a heap of soil by means of which the infant plaintiff clambered up and sat on the wall. On the other side of the wall was an 18 ft. drop into a field. The plaintiff fell backwards over the wall and sustained injuries. On his behalf it was alleged that the place was dangerous, that there was allurement and a trap, and that there was negligence in having a heap of soil against the wall.

The Court of Appeal (Scrutton, Greer and Slesser L.JJ.) held that no facts were proved which would give a cause of action against the defendants, and Lord Justice Scrutton, in the course of his judgment, stated that there was abundant evidence that

the children of the neighbourhood used to play about the works when no one was there and that if workmen were there, the children were always warned off. The plaintiff had been warned off by a workman. The only connection of the heap of waste soil with the matter was that it made it easier for the boy to get to the wall to sit on it and provided a safer seat for him because he could, and must, use it as a foot rest. The defendants took no action which injured the boy and they had certainly not invited him to sit on the wall. The cause of action, if any, must be that the defendants created an attractive and dangerous combination which led the boy to go into danger and that they took no sufficient steps to prevent him from being tempted and so led him into danger. The question was whether the facts could possibly lead to that conclusion. To make the landowner liable for injury to a child on his land it must be proved that he expressly or impliedly invited children on his land and either did an act which caused damage with knowledge that it might injure the children, or knowingly permitted the existence on his land of a hidden danger, a trap. His Lordship commented on the fact that the jury had received no directions on the question whether the plaintiff was lawfully using the highway, or as to what the defendants' duty was. He held that there was no evidence on which a reasonable jury could find negligence against the defendants. (98 *Justice of the Peace*, 273 ; 78 *Law Journal*, 304 ; 78 *Solicitors' Journal*, 349.)

Entertainments

The Court of Appeal has upheld, subject to one variation, the judgment of Mr. Justice Luxmoore in Attorney-General *v.* Eastbourne Corporation (XII PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION, 186). The point on which the Court of Appeal (Hanworth M.R., Romer and Maugham L.JJ.) differed from Mr. Justice Luxmoore was with regard to the concerts at the Redoubt Bandstand. In that case, said the Master of the Rolls in the course of his judgment, the entertainment was in the nature of a variety entertainment, and the performers were directly engaged by the Corporation, and so *prima facie* it was prohibited by s. 17 of the Eastbourne Corporation Act, 1926. In his opinion, the view that the entertainment was not in a building within the meaning of the section was not well founded. Whether or not a structure was a building was, he said, no doubt a question of fact and in some cases it might be difficult to draw the line. But the bandstand at the Redoubt was, in his view, undoubtedly a building, and indeed was one erected by the Corporation pursuant to the duty which they owed to the public under s. 17 of the Act of 1926. Except as to this matter the appeal was dismissed, as also was the cross-appeal of the Corporation. (*The Times*, 18th July, 1934.)

Poor Law Settlement

In Coventry Corporation *v.* Surrey County Council the House of Lords has reversed the decision of the Court of Appeal (XII PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION, 187) and has restored the order of the Divisional Court to the effect that a settlement could be obtained under s. 86 (1) of the Poor Law Act, 1930, by a poor person, being an illegitimate child under 16 years of age in respect of whom an adoption order had been made. From a time prior to the date of the adoption order, namely, the 25th November, 1927, the adopters had continued to be and still were irremovable from and last settled in the City and County Borough of Leicester. From October, 1931, to July, 1932, the poor person was an inmate of the Gordon Boys' Home at Woking, Surrey, and from that date had become chargeable to the County of Surrey. In September, 1932, an order was obtained for his removal to the City and County Borough of Coventry, being the poor law settlement of his natural mother. The Coventry Corporation appealed to Quarter Sessions against this order and, on a special case being stated for the opinion of the High Court, the Divisional Court held that the poor person had acquired a settlement at Leicester by residence therein with the adopters for upwards of three years, and quashed the removal order. This decision was reversed on appeal, but, as stated above, the House of Lords had now restored the decision of the Divisional Court.

Lord Atkin, in giving the judgment of the Court, said that the dispute arose as to the effect of the provisions of the Adoption of Children Act, 1926, on the sections of the Poor Law Act, 1930, dealing with settlement. The respondents, the Surrey County Council, in fact represented Leicester. After referring to the reliance placed on s. 85 (1) of the Act of 1930 by the respondents in support of the contention that the poor person, being illegitimate, followed the settlement of his mother up to the age of 16 and retained that settlement until he acquired a settlement of his own, his Lordship examined ss. 86 (1) and 93 (4) of the Act, on which the appellants, the Coventry Corporation, relied to show that the poor person had acquired a settlement of his own in Leicester. The Act of 1926, he said, did not put the adopter and the child in the position of natural parent and child for all purposes, but as to the matters enumerated in s. 5 (1) of that Act, custody, maintenance and education, it did in the plainest language transfer from the natural parent to the adopter the whole of the rights and obligations that flowed from parenthood; and placed the child in the same position as though he were the lawful

natural child of the adopter. His Lordship could not entertain any doubt that s. 93 (4) of the Act of 1930 was a section concerning the rights and obligations of the parent or of the child as to custody, maintenance or education. The section gave the right to the father and mother named to retain the custody of the child under 16, and not to have him or her removed from them. The child had an equal right not to be removed from its parents. It followed that the adoptive parents had the same right; so had the adopted child. In other words, the adopted child under 16 was irremovable, and, as the conditions of s. 86 were complied with, the child in this case acquired a settlement of his own in Leicester. (*The Times*, 20th July, 1934 ; 78 *Law Journal*, 105 ; 98 *Justice of the Peace*, 492).

Another recent case on the subject of poor law settlement was Lancashire County Council *v.* Southport Borough Council where the question at issue was as to the effect on poor law settlement of the division of a poor law area into a county area and a county borough area. From 1896 a poor person had, except for a few days residence in March, 1913, in the County Borough of Southport, resided in the Parish of Ormskirk, Lancashire, and from March, 1913, to March, 1931, had been an inmate of the Ormskirk Union Poor Law Institution. On the 1st April, 1930, under the provisions of the Local Government Act, 1929, the area comprising the County Borough of Southport became a separate poor law area and the area comprising the Parish of Ormskirk became part of the poor law area of Lancashire. From March, 1931, till the 3rd March, 1933, the poor person resided in Southport and from November, 1931, had been in receipt of relief. On the 3rd March, 1933, a Court of Summary Jurisdiction, on the application of the Southport Borough Council, ordered the poor person's removal to the County of Lancaster. The Lancashire County Council appealed to Quarter Sessions, which allowed the appeal, the Court being of opinion that the poor person was resident in Southport immediately before the 1st April, 1930, and had acquired a status of irremovability therein. On appeal by the Southport Borough Council, the Divisional Court held that under s. 104 of the Poor Law Act, 1930, the poor person had acquired a settlement in Lancashire and had not acquired a status of irremovability in Southport by reason of residence there for one year before the application for the order, that the order of the Court of Summary Jurisdiction was right, and that the appeal must be allowed. (98 *Justice of the Peace*, 345.)

Superannuation Scheme

The Court of Appeal has reversed the decision of Mr. Justice Farwell in Gissing *v.* Liverpool Corporation (XII Public Administration, 187) which was a test case affecting hundreds of other cases, mostly in Liverpool, and raised a difficult and important point due to the complexity of legislation over the wide field of local government law dealing with public health, poor law and other matters. The result of the appeal is that the plaintiff is held entitled to a pension under the Poor Law Officers Superannuation Act, 1896, which Act established a compulsory pension system. Mr. Justice Farwell had held that there was an unfortunate slip in the Local Government Act, 1929, that the responsibility of the Guardians to pay the pension had not been transferred to the defendant Corporation, that the question turned entirely on the construction of the opening words of s. 124 of the 1929 Act, and that the defendant Corporation could not, under them, justify payment of the pension to the plaintiff.

Lord Hanworth M.R., in giving judgment, pointed out that under s. 119 of the 1929 Act all the officers of the West Derby Poor Law Union were transferred to the Corporation and that under s. 113 all the property and liabilities under the Act of 1896 were also transferred, including any obligation to carry any sum of money to the account of a sinking fund. Careful examination of the Act of 1896 suggested that questions of difficulty might arise as to the quantum of contributions to be made and the times when they were to be made and his Lordship questioned whether it could be said that the language of s. 124 of the Act of 1929 connoted a rigid compliance with the Act of 1896 and did not refer to such contributions as had been made in an effort to comply with the provisions of the Act, notwithstanding mistakes. In his opinion, the Judge had given too rigid and severe an interpretation to the words of s. 124. Properly interpreted, there was no impediment to the plaintiff receiving her pension. (*The Times*, 14th July, 1934 ; 98 *Justice of the Peace*, 478 ; 178 *Law Times*, 77.)

Surcharge Appeals.

The Court of Appeal has reversed the decision of the Divisional Court in the case of *In re* a decision of H. W. McGrath, District Auditor of No. 1 Audit District, Durham, to the extent of restoring the District Auditor's disallowance of a payment of £700 to the County Accountant for additional remuneration at the rate of £70 per annum from 1921 to 1931 in the supervision of the local taxation department. The facts and the decision of the Divisional Court are reported in XII Public Administration, 188.

Scrutton L.J., in giving the decision of the Court, in which Greer and Maugham

L.JJ concurred, referred to the fact that from 1921 to 1925 the Council took no steps to increase the County Accountant's remuneration and stated that the records of the Council or its committees contained nothing to show that the determination in 1925 to increase the salary by £100 was provisional and that the period from 1921 to 1931 was still open to review. He could not think that unrecorded conversations with representatives of the parties in power and other matters mentioned could control or interpret the clear language of the resolution. To allow representative bodies, years after remuneration of their officers had been clearly fixed, to make further payments in respect of past years because they thought that their predecessors had not paid enough would be most prejudicial to the working of local government and unreasonable in the highest degree. The Council's action in voting remuneration in 1931 for work already provided by resolution was, in his Lordship's opinion, unreasonable and contrary to law. The effect of the present decision was to establish that this kind of retrospective *ex gratia* payment was contrary to law and possibly to make for better government in the future. (*The Times*, 10th July, 1934 ; 178 *Law Times*, 78 ; 78 *Law Journal*, 61 ; 98 *Justice of the Peace*, 461.)

Differential Rents

The novel scheme of the Leeds Corporation to apply varying rents according to the means of the respective tenants in respect of houses of the same class became the subject of a test case in the Leeds County Court in May last. The Corporation sued Mr. J. R. Jenkinson, Secretary of the Leeds Federation of Municipal Tenants' Associations, for possession of and for rent due for a house which was one of many erected by the Corporation with the financial aid of the Ministry of Health under the Housing (Financial Provisions) Act, 1924, and not within the protection of the Rent Restriction Acts. Section 3 of the Act of 1924 provides as follows:—

(1) Houses provided by a local authority themselves shall be deemed to be subject to special conditions if the local authority undertake, in accordance with rules made by the Minister (of Health) and approved by the Treasury, that the following conditions will be complied with in relation to the houses:—

. . . . . .

(*e*) that the rents charged in respect of the houses shall not in the aggregate exceed the total amount of the rents that would be payable if the houses were let at the appropriate normal rents charged in respect of working-class houses erected prior to the 3rd day of August, 1914.

. . . . . .

(3) For the purposes of this section the appropriate normal rent shall be deemed to be such rent, exclusive of rates, as the local authority determine, in accordance with rules made by the Minister, to be the rent that is normally charged in the area of the local authority in the case of working-class houses erected prior to the 3rd day of August, 1914: Provided that different rents may be so determined to be the appropriate normal rents as respects different classes of houses and as respects different parts of the area.

In giving judgment in favour of the Corporation, Judge Woodcock stated that such differentiation as is permissible under s. 3 of the Act does not include any power of differentiation in respect of the means of the tenants; that the power applies to the houses only and not to the occupiers. A public authority, his Honour stated, does not stand in the same position legally as a private individual in the exercise of its rights and powers. The private owner of property let to a tenant can—apart from the Rent Acts—give a notice to quit for any reason, however capricious, or for no reason at all. The statutory power which dominated the whole of this case and governed the relations between all local authorities and their tenants appeared to his Honour to be that contained in the Housing Act, 1925 (s. 67) which provides that:—

(1) The general management, regulation and control of the dwelling-houses provided by a local authority under this part of this Act or any Act repealed by this Act shall be vested in and exercised by the local authority.

(2) The local authority may make such reasonable charges for the tenancy or occupation of the dwelling-houses so provided as they may by regulations determine.

It had been alleged, and not questioned, that the rent proposed to be charged was the full economic rent, and so his Honour had no hesitation in finding that it was a reasonable rent. He took the view that all the arrangements between the Minister of Health and the Corporation were matters which did not affect the relation of landlord and tenant as between the authority and its tenants. There was no evidence before him that the new rents would exceed the aggregate of the agreed rents for the area, and he could find no ground for holding that the action of the Corporation was *ultra vires*. (*The Times*, 15th March, 1934.)

Public Administration

Public Authorities Protection

A point of some practical interest in local government as to the extent of the protection given by the Public Authorities Protection Act, 1893, as regards claims made on behalf of children was recently decided in the case of Shaw and others *v.* London County Council and others (178 *Law Times,* 8 ; 78 *Solicitors' Journal,* 519 ; 78 *Law Journal,* 44 ; 98 *Justice of the Peace,* 461). The plaintiffs were infants who, while patients at a London County Council hospital in October, 1932, contracted a disease owing, it was alleged, to the unskilfulness, negligence and breach of duty of the medical superintendent of the hospital. The writ was not issued until January, 1934, *i.e.,* beyond the limit of six months within which actions may be brought against a public authority under s. 1 of the Act of 1893. It was argued on behalf of the plaintiffs that, by virtue of s. 7 of the Limitations Act, 1623, the Act of 1893 did not begin to run until an infant was 21 years of age and that s. 2 of the Act of 1893, while repealing so much of any public general Act which laid down a time limit in regard to any proceeding to which the Act applied, left untouched the provisions of the Act of 1623 respecting children.

Mr. Justice Roche held that the plaintiffs' claim was barred except in so far as it was in respect of a cause of action arising six months before the writ was issued. The wording of the Act of 1893 was absolute and no exception was made in regard to infants. He doubted whether the Act of 1893 repealed any part of the Act of 1623 because the Acts dealt with different matters, but held that if any of the older Act was repealed then the whole was repealed.

Alteration of Boundaries of County Districts

The question arose in the case of Rex *v.* Minister of Health; *ex parte* Purfleet Urban District Council (*The Times,* 24th July, 1934 ; 98 *Justice of the Peace,* 493) whether a County Council, having already made proposals to the Minister of Health in pursuance of their duty under s. 46 of the Local Government Act, 1929, for the alteration of the boundaries of the districts in the county, which proposals were not adopted by the Minister, were *functus officio* and whether the supplementary proposals they had since made at the invitation of the Minister were *ultra vires.* The Court of Appeal (Scrutton, Greer and Slesser, L.JJ.), affirming the majority decision of the Divisional Court, held that this was not the case, that there was nothing in the Act which prevented the Minister of Health from asking the County Council whether they would consider further matter, or whether they stood by their original proposal (the Minister not having at that time come to any final decision) and that there was no ground whatever for saying that in this case the Minister had acted without jurisdiction or in excess of jurisdiction.

County Valuations

In Coulsdon and Purley Urban District Council *v.* Surrey County Council (178 *Law Times,* 46) Mr. Justice Clauson held that the defendants, through their County Valuation Committee, in appointing valuers to value special properties, such as water undertakings, racecourses, licensed premises, etc., and in offering to place such valuation at the service of the rating authorities, had not usurped the functions of the plaintiffs, as the rating authority, but that in doing so they were properly carrying out the duties imposed on them by s. 18 of the Rating and Valuation Act, 1925, for " promoting uniformity in the principles and practice of valuation and assisting rating authorities in the performance of their functions."

Drainage Rate

In Lodge *v.* Lancaster County Council the facts were that the plaintiff up to 1928 paid a rate of 9d. per annum on an acreage basis in respect of his property. In that year, at the invitation of the defendants, he commuted the rate by making a capital payment. On the passing of the Land Drainage Act, 1930, the defendants reimposed a rate on the basis of gross annual value of the property, their contention being that s. 24 (4) of the Act of 1930 created a new rate which they were bound to levy. Section 24 (4) of the Land Drainage Act, 1930, provides: "Every rate made by a drainage board shall be an annual value rate, that is to say, a rate assessed on the basis of annual value as regards all hereditaments, and, subject to the provisions of this section, every drainage rate shall be assessed at a uniform amount per pound throughout the area. . . ." The Justices of Morcombe held that a distress warrant be issued for payment of this rate but that the warrant be suspended pending the decision of the High Court.

It was held that the defendants should abide by their bargain, made in 1928, to commute all future drainage rates, and that the Act of 1930 did not create a new rate, but merely fixed one of two previously existing alternative methods of assessing property. (98 *Justice of the Peace,* 508 ; 124 *Estates Gazette,* 153.)

Clearance Order.

A Clearance Order was made by the Jarrow Town Council under the Housing Act, 1930, in February, 1933. In the following May an Inspector of the Ministry of Health

held a public local inquiry into the matter, when evidence was given on behalf of, among other persons, the owners of part of the property in the clearance area that their property could be made fit for habitation by the execution of certain repairs which they were willing to perform. In September, 1933, the Inspector called a meeting between the medical officer of health and these owners, as a result of which the parties agreed on the repairs which ought to be undertaken. The Jarrow Town Council, however, were still of opinion that a demolition order ought to be made. As a result of correspondence between the Minister of Health and the Council, three members of the Minister's staff visited Jarrow in January, 1934, inspected the area and interviewed certain persons, but the owners in question were given no opportunity of being present. Further, the Minister received a letter from the Council setting out the views of their borough engineer, who was not present at the inquiry. In March, 1934, the Minister confirmed the order.

The owners in question applied to the Court to quash the order, alleging that the Minister had acted unfairly towards them in receiving evidence which the applicants had no opportunity of testing by cross-examination, or of answering.

In giving judgment dismissing the application, Mr. Justice Swift said that the Act of 1930 provided that if there was no objection to the clearance order, the Minister might confirm it, but that if there was an objection, there must be a public inquiry and a consideration of the report and of any objections. His Lordship thought that the Minister was entitled to make the inquiries which he had instituted and that the Court could not question any order made after such inquiries, provided they were conducted fairly and honestly. It was impossible to say that in this case the Minister had not complied with all the requirements of the Act, or that he had done anything which the Act forbade. The application was accordingly dismissed. (*In re* The Jarrow North Ward (No. 1) Clearance Order, 1933 ; *ex parte* Errington and others, *The Times*, 31st July, 1934.)

Road Charges under Private Street Works Act

In Audershaw Urban District Council *v.* Yarburg-Bateson and others (124 *Estates Gazette*, 191) the plaintiff Council appealed against a decision of the Justices in favour of frontagers who had been served with notices to repair a road under the Private Street Works Act, 1892. The facts, shortly, were that the road was made by the Manchester Corporation in 1875 when they constructed their waterworks and, by an agreement of 1878, they assumed an obligation to keep it in a certain state of repair. The road fell into disrepair after 1914 and in 1926 litigation ensued between the Manchester Corporation and the Audershaw and Denton District Councils as to the extent of the Corporation's liability to keep the road in repair to meet modern needs. It was held that the Corporation were only liable for the upkeep of the fabric with a surface of the character stipulated by the 1878 agreement, which was less than that of modern needs. The Manchester Corporation paid a sum of money to the plaintiff Council in consideration of the latter taking over the Corporation's liability. The frontagers claimed that this money should be brought into account by the Council and that the apportionment was inaccurate. The Justices upheld this contention and the Council appealed.

Lord Hewart C.J., in giving judgment, said that it would be wrong to suggest that the Council were bound to make up the road to the standard required by the Private Street Works Act, 1892, and remarked that it was difficult to assess the lesser amount which the frontagers would have had to pay if the road had been kept in good repair. It could not be said, however, that there was no evidence on which the Justices could decide that the apportionment of expenses by the Council was inaccurate. The appeal was, accordingly, dismissed.

Reviews

LOCAL SURVEYS

The Social Survey of Merseyside

Edited by D. CARADOG JONES. 3 vols., 328, 413 and 560 pp. (University Press of Liverpool; Hodder and Stoughton, Ltd.) 45s.

THIS Survey is worthy to rank with that of Booth for London, and contains distinctive features of its own. An outline of the survey gives some idea of its scope, though little of its wealth of detail—the history of the development of the area (a very interesting and succinct first chapter), the contribution of different nationalities, analysis of population (age, sex, marital condition), overcrowding, poverty, municipal housing, working-class budgets, industry, unemployment, surplus of labour, investigation of several normal groups (infants, school children, adolescents, families without a male head, pensioners) and of subnormal types (deaf and dumb, blind, mentally deficient, physically defective, destitute), public administration, social services, fertility among different classes. The survey was rendered possible by a grant from the Rockefeller Foundation and the money has borne good fruit. Tribute is paid to central and local officials for help rendered in the survey.

How to review a monumental work of this kind is a question. To give some of the outstanding facts and tentative conclusions elicited by the survey is very tempting, but it would be difficult to know where to stop. Those who are interested in surveys in general or in particular questions with which these volumes deal should consult them, because quotations could not do justice to the riches of information and the ingenuity of investigation and tabulation. Now that a comprehensive survey of a large provincial city has been produced, it is not beyond hope that others will follow, and it may be more advantageous to consider some general questions arising out of investigations of this kind, prefacing them with a warm tribute to those who have been responsible for this exhaustive survey.

The three volumes are a quarry. They are not likely to be read with care by many except students and those specially interested, professionally or otherwise, in particular subjects. For the most part they do not make easy reading, facts and figures pile up in the mind

to weariness and even confusion with the least flagging. This is more or less inherent in the subject and method, but we need to consider whether the way of presentation of matters of this description cannot be improved, the better " to get across " the results, whether to student, public servant, social worker or general public. If I am a general reader, wishing to inform myself of prevailing conditions, what I want is a statement of results, concise and at the same time interesting, without too much burden of detail, much less of multitudinous statistics, though with occasional telling instances to give the narrative life (there are several in these volumes). If I am a student, what I require are the data, put statistically where possible, with sufficient information to judge of their value and with their significance set forth as concisely and as baldly as possible. Attempts to combine the two are apt to fall between two stools.

Some time ago an elaborate survey was carried out at great cost of the Greater New York Region, primarily for the purposes of planning, and the results published in several volumes. Later a popular volume of moderate size was issued for the general public, bringing out some of the salient features. The Liverpool volume, like those of New York, will for many years prove a rich quarry for students and publicists (and many will no doubt extract material to support preconceptions and prejudices), but it is also necessary to appeal to the general public, or rather the more thoughtful section of it. Liverpool might well consider whether to follow the New York example.

The place of the survey in social research is another question which comes to mind in reading these volumes. Its primary purpose is to set out the facts about place and inhabitants, of which otherwise even the best informed has only glimpses or sectional views. " The function of a survey," to quote from the volumes, " is the more modest one of describing what can be seen on the surface and analysing the effects of the immediately controlling forces." But the survey throws up many problems, such as those of the inheritance of certain physical or mental defects (the survey gives some striking cases), the relation of these to destitution, the very interesting questions raised in the last chapter on differential fertility. The facts of any one city, perhaps even the largest, can but suggest; for any but very tentative conclusions research must extend over a much wider field. There are few more urgent needs at the present time than the increase of the exiguous amount of genuine social research which is now being undertaken.

The value of surveys of this kind is very great. History is the best schoolmaster of statesmanship. The difficulty is to know the facts of history and their significance. Great would have been the service of

similar surveys if they had been made in past years, even at long intervals, for our understanding of social conditions and developments! This is illustrated by the second "Booth" survey of London. A better sense of perspective and a sounder tradition would have developed.

The provision of so rich a store for general use is ample justification for the survey. But the question also arises whether, in addition to casual use of material, some systematic measures could not, and should not, be adopted for applying the information to present problems. The survey has been carried out under the auspices of the University, which has deserved well of the local community, and of the country, for undertaking it. The University may be able to carry their service still further by spreading a knowledge of the information gained and its significance for current problems—not an easy task because of the danger of becoming entangled in Party politics, but a task well worth doing, indeed badly needing to be done, because now more than ever does Governmental and other social policy need to be based on sound impartial knowledge.

These are but a few of the thoughts raised by this admirable survey, a survey for which warm gratitude is due to those through whose generosity it has been undertaken and to those who have carried it out.

I. G. G.

Work and Wealth in a Modern Port: An Economic Survey of Southampton

By P. Ford, Ph.D., University College, Southampton. (Allen & Unwin.) 10s. 6d. net.

To most of us the very name Southampton is invested with a sort of glamour. It inspires us with visions of great steamers rolling down to Rio, of tired trains mingling with the street traffic on their way to the sea, of Britishers from the far ends of the earth seeing "home" for the first time. Mr. Ford's book does nothing to add to the glamour; it was not of course intended to, but possibly the author goes too far in regarding Southampton not so much as a living entity as a quarry from which economic and sociological facts may be dug. He goes some way in fact to strip Southampton of its glamour; he writes of the hard facts of industry, housing and crime, and much of the survey was done in 1931, during the depths of the depression. It is no criticism of the author to say that the book might aptly be called: "Unemployment and Poverty in a Modern Port."

He finds that in 1931 about 21 per cent. of the families in Southampton were below the poverty datum-line, and that no less than

one-third of the families were in a state of potential poverty, *i.e.*, the householder had insufficient income to maintain himself and his dependents. About two-thirds of the primary poverty was due to unemployment, and the " below-line " families were paying on the whole higher rent in absolute amounts than those above the line. In so far as the position at Southampton may be regarded as typical, we may conclude that under present conditions poverty is due not so much to low wages as to insecurity of employment and inability to find adequate housing-accommodation at a rate that the occupier can afford to pay.

One is lost in admiration at the labour and patience that went to the making of this book. To quote from the preface, " The survey was first planned in 1927-28 and has included a study of 21,000 families, and a random sample household inquiry; as well as a good deal of other statistical work. Surveys of this kind are usually endowed in some way or other, but this had to be conducted with no other assistance than three annual grants from the Research Funds of University College, Southampton; and no special secretarial assistance of any kind was available. The load was a heavy one to carry in addition to full-time University work . . . ." One marvels how it proved possible with such meagre equipment to compile even a single one of the fifty or so statistical tables that the book contains.

Mr. Ford makes the fullest use of any comparable data that are available, and his book is therefore of much more than local significance. Every page of the book shows the mark of an exact scholar: Mr. Ford defines his terms, explains the standards on which his conclusions are based, shows the conditions and limitations of each inquiry, and assesses the margin of error of his conclusions. Having reached a conclusion, he all too rarely permits himself the luxury of any generalized comments: among the few cases in which he does, his discussion of the various types of means test and of the problem of housing estates are of special interest to the administrator. We hope that in his next book Mr. Ford will render a still greater service to public administration by helping us to realize the implications of his discoveries.

W. D. S.

SOCIAL SERVICE AND INVESTIGATION

The New Philanthropy

By ELIZABETH MACADAM, M.A. (George Allen & Unwin, Ltd.) 7s. 6d. net.

THIS is a timely survey of the social services which form so large a part of the public activities of to-day. Their different aspects, statu-

tory and voluntary, are recorded, their defects are criticised and suggestions are offered for more effective co-ordination and greater efficiency.

The statutory services which are reviewed apparently do not include national health insurance, unemployment insurance and old age pensions. Against the other services which are mentioned it is urged that they need closer co-ordination and the remedy proposed is that an advisory board should be set up for that purpose.

Similarly we are told that the voluntary charities ought to be supervised and co-ordinated by compulsory registration with the Charity Commissioners and by the establishment of a voluntary central board of charities which would work in association with the advisory board for the Civil Service.

These are the principal recommendations, but the survey of voluntary organisations classified in relation to such questions as home assistance, health, housing, the elementary school and delinquency is accompanied by other suggestions, some of which should meet with ready acceptance, while others require fuller consideration before being adopted or are frankly controversial. The chapter on delinquency is worthy of commendation by reason of its presentation of a subject which is too little undersood. It is lamentable that the public knows so little of the conditions under which the criminal is made and the way he is handled. The criticism of the method of selection of magistrates is well founded.

Methods of raising money for charitable purposes are reviewed and also what is called the International Spirit of Social Service.

If the book has a fault it is that it is too comprehensive. The qualifications of officers of the civil and local government services can of course be brought under discussion, but they seem to be on the outer rim of the subject of the book. It is interesting to find not only the Civil Service Commission but the Departmental Committee on the Recruitment and Training of Local Government Officers criticised for failing to make recommendations as to the qualifications and training for entrants to the social services. Following this failure of action the Government are strenuously called upon to set up a committee on the subject. The Hadow Committee's Report has been criticised on various grounds—probably neither the Committee nor the critics imagined that there would so soon be a cry for a new inquiry.

So far as the author calls for a co-ordinating authority in the Civil Service she appears to be insufficiently aware of the considerable extent to which there is intercommunication between Departments administering similar services. The Ministry of Health Act, 1919, went a long way towards setting the social services on sound lines, and

it is at least doubtful whether a co-ordinating body such as is suggested by the author would be more effective than the present system.

The policy of the State in relation to voluntary social services was put into practice considerably more than forty years ago, and does not appear to be sufficiently recognised by the author. That policy, which still to a large extent continues to be operative, is that voluntary effort in services of national importance should be encouraged to function, that in case of need it should be helped financially and that its operation should only be taken over by the State or some public body when it has grown beyond the ability of voluntaryism to manage it. Voluntary hospitals in beneficial administration have been active for more than a hundred years, and have become generally so efficient and popular that there is no demand that they shall be nationalised or municipalised. Local authorities were authorised by the Public Health Acts to provide hospitals but they have almost entirely limited the exercise of these powers to the provision of hospitals for infectious diseases ,and have left the voluntary hospitals undisturbed. When, in 1921, many voluntary hospitals, following the War period, were in financial straits, the Government were in no way disposed to take them over. Lord Cave's Committee were authorised to disburse a fixed sum of money in the hope, happily now largely realised, that after a time private beneficence would set them on their feet again. Section 13 of the Local Government Act, 1929, again was not promoted for the purpose of enabling the local authorities to take over voluntary hospitals. The purpose of the Legislature was to enable waiting lists at hospitals of any class to be reduced by the utilisation of vacant beds in other hospitals. This should lead to closer consultation between voluntary and local government hospitals, but there is no indication of any desire on either side for absorption or amalgamation. It is certain that any proposal of such a nature would be stoutly opposed, and not on one side only. Similarly, the history of elementary education shows an unwillingness on the part of Parliament to supersede the provision of existing educational services. Even to-day, when education is almost entirely controlled by the State and the local education authorities, the rights of voluntary effort have been preserved. Other instances might be given. They all illustrate the principle that where voluntary effort can and does provide a satisfactory service, though it may not be adequate, the State will not remove or appropriate it, but will be content to supplement its activities.

In seeking to survey the future the author divides the appropriate spheres for voluntary service into those that are experimental, those that call for more individualised work than can be expected from

public authorities, and those of the watchdog type. It might be added that there are services that are spectacular and appeal to the public, and this is the answer to the author's inquiry why the provision of lighthouses is the concern of the State, while the lifeboat service is left to a voluntary society. The lighthouse keeper performs a meritorious service in circumstances calling for regular and usually monotonous attention—and no one is seized by a desire to subscribe towards his maintenance, while the launching of the lifeboat in the storm touches the hearts and loosens the purse-strings of thousands. The author tells us we are not a logical people (surely we have heard this before) but our practical methods sometimes transcend logic.

The comprehensive survey which the author gives of existing voluntary social services may create a sense of uneasiness. They are so many and so largely unrelated and in many instances imperfect. Yet it may be that chaotic conditions exist on paper much more than in fact. The British people are charitably minded, and deductions from what took place during the War are not really fair argument at the present day. To the orderly mind all charities should be placed under a system of registration and public supervision. Yet there is a danger of pursuing such a policy too far. Too much rigour might tend to dry up the flow of charity. After all it is remarkable how ably on the whole charities are administered. A less drastic procedure than the author desiderates might be adequate to meet present requirements.

The work may be commended to all who are interested in social welfare. It would form an acceptable text-book for group discussions during the coming winter.

There are errors which might be corrected in a second edition. The Thames Flood took place in 1928, not 1927. Of the six categories of voluntary agencies on page 33 only five are set out—one has slipped out unnoticed. Paragraph 2 on page 54 should be corrected and rewritten. On page 112 " now " for " no " gives a meaning apparently not intended. " The Lord Chancellor, the Right Hon. Vincent Sankey " has an unfamiliar look. Possibly " Viscount " was intended. Miss Rathbone, referred to as a personal friend of the author, is differently named in different places. Other errors could be pointed out.

W. E. H.

Glen's Law relating to Unemployment Assistance

By E. BRIGHT ASHFORD, B.A., of the Middle Temple and South-Eastern Circuit, Barrister-at-Law, assisted by ALEXANDER P. L. GLEN, Solicitor of the Supreme Court. With an Introduction by W. D. Bushell, M.A., Barrister-at-Law, formerly one of the General Inspectors of the Ministry of Health. (Law and Local Government Publications Limited.) 5s.

THIS book will be of great use to all those who in their official

duties are concerned with the assistance of the able-bodied, whether nationally or locally.

For the past one hundred years the relief of the poor has been the responsibility of a local authority, and not until the burden became so heavy in certain industrial areas did the Government accept any partial financial responsibility, apart from its contribution towards the unemployment insurance fund. Now this has been altered by the new Unemployment Act and a book such as we are now reviewing is essential to those who are directly or indirectly concerned with the administration of the Act. This not only includes poor law officials and the staffs of the new Unemployment Assistance Board, the Ministry of Health and the Ministry of Labour, but officials of Education Committees which have duties with regard to the instruction and training of juveniles.

It is not always an easy matter for two writers to collaborate in producing a book, but such an arrangement frequently results in a more useful publication than if a book is by a single writer, and this applies to the volume we are now reviewing. Miss Bright Ashford had the great advantage of collaborating with Mr. Randolph Glen in a previous volume on Public Assistance and she would be the first person to admit that her former association with a man who was renowned as an authority on the Poor Law has contributed largely to her lucid exposition of the Unemployment Act, with which Mr. Alexander P. L. Glen has assisted.

It is usually a mistake to quote too freely in a text book from speeches made in the House of Commons during the passing of a Bill. When any particular provision has to be interpreted by the Courts the sections must be read as they stand, and it does not always follow that the legal construction is similar to the explanation given on the clause when it was before Parliament. This does not, however, apply so forcibly to a statute, such as the Unemployment Act, which is mainly concerned with administration rather than with legal problems likely to lead to litigation. The Act is made more intelligible by the quotations from the speeches of Ministers which are given in the annotations of various sections. These quotations show their attitude to the many points of interest or difficulty that arose during the passing of the Act. References in Hansard to the debates are also given with the same object.

The administration of the Act will be based largely on the Rules and Regulations to be made by the Unemployment Assistance Board. There is nowadays so much competition between publishers that books are frequently published too soon after the passing of any particular Act, and in consequence they become of little value in a few months owing to the subsequent issue of various statutory rules

and orders. It would of course have been more useful if the rules and orders made by the Unemployment Assistance Board could have been incorporated in this volume, but in a new subject it is essential that a book should be available immediately, and the authors are to be congratulated on producing such a lucid volume in such a short time. The rules and regulations will be issued in a separate volume at a later date.

It was a happy thought to associate Mr. Bushell with this book. Since his retirement from an appointment as a General Inspector of the Ministry of Health, which he held for many years, he has written on a number of Poor Law subjects. An Introduction, such as he has written to this book, is essential for the intelligent consideration of the Act unless the reader is prepared to wade through such a voluminous volume as the Report of the Unemployment Insurance Commission. Although the new administration is to be on a national basis many of the old Poor Law principles must still be followed if the administration is to be sound, and we feel sure, therefore, that the historical *résumé* which Mr. Bushell has so ably written will be found very helpful.

J. M.

International Survey of Social Services

(P. S. King & Son, Ltd., Orchard House, 14, Great Smith Street, Westminster, S.W.1.) 15s.

A BOOK of reference for the social investigator, a guide to the various ways in which nations seek to protect their workers from the effects of ill health or ill luck—such is the International Survey of Social Services, published in November, 1933, at Geneva by the International Labour Office. But this Survey is not a means whereby an accurate and scientific comparison can be established of the value in hard cash of the various forms of social insurance and assistance provided by the nations of the civilised world. It is for that reason that in this Review we have dealt more with the genesis and development of the Survey than with the actual results. These results cover 687 pages.

The Survey had its origin in a request made in 1926 by the British Ministry of Labour to the International Labour Office. Experts suggested that the social charges to be investigated should be classified according to their origin as follows:— (*a*) physical risks (sickness, invalidity, old age, maternity, accidents, death); (*b*) economic risks (involuntary unemployment); and (*c*) assistance of large families.

The International Labour Office decided to take into consideration all social services satisfying the following criteria: (*a*) that their object should be to cover one of the following risks: industrial accidents,

occupational diseases, sickness, maternity, invalidity, old age, death and involuntary unemployment; (*b*) that they should be established on behalf of classes of the population consisting mainly of wage earners and persons of small means working on their own account.

On this basis preliminary studies were carried out by the Office in the case of five countries: Czechoslovakia, France, Germany, Great Britain and Northern Ireland, and Poland. The results were submitted to the committee, and difficulties at once arose as to the scope of the investigation, in particular whether social *assistance,* as well as social *insurance,* should be included. The committee ultimately decided unanimously that the study should cover social assistance, and later the Governing Body decided to include also family allowances and holidays with pay.

In the end the Survey was planned under the following heads: (I) statistics of population; (II) social insurance; (III) social assistance; (IV) housing; (V) family allowances; (VI) holidays with pay.

It is interesting to note that the Office, when submitting the proposals referred to above to the investigating committee, added the following remark: " It has been impossible to express the cost of social services in such forms and by such methods as would illustrate either the extent of the charges or the level of social protection." Some members of the committee considered this remark pessimistic. But it is to the credit of the Office that it issued this *caveat.*

The Governing Body following the suggestion of the committee decided that the Survey should be in the nature of a Year Book of Social Services. However, annual publication has turned out to be impracticable. The analyses of legislation and the statistics refer to the working of social services as they existed in 1930. One remark in the introduction has a touch of grim humour. Some of the Government Departments, it is said, on receipt of the monographs prepared by the Office, instead of checking them, sent them back with a voluminous collection of documents, leaving it to the Office to do the checking and re-arranging of the material so as to make it fit in with the plan of the Survey. We can well understand the feelings both of the Departments and of the Office.

Of the 35 Governments (including five of the States of the U.S.A.), to which the Office sent monographs, the present volume contains the studies of the social services in the following 24 countries: Australia, Belgium, Bulgaria, Canada, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Great Britain and Northern Ireland, Hungary, India, Irish Free State, Italy, Japan, Luxemburg, Netherlands, Poland, Rumania, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Union of South Africa and Yugoslavia.

Within the limits of this Review it is impossible to refer in detail

to the systems in the various countries. The Survey itself contains, alas, no summary. Selecting four important aspects of social activity, *i.e.*, Workmen's Compensation, Old Age Pensions (Contributory or Free), Compulsory Health Insurance and Unemployment Insurance, we find that all of the 24 countries have Workmen's Compensation or Insurance against Industrial Accidents; all except two, Finland and British India, have a system of Old Age Pensions either free or contributory; in the realm of Unemployment Insurance 16 countries have no scheme, and Compulsory Health Insurance is not in force in 12 States.

Twenty years ago this International Survey would have presented a very different picture; some of the schemes shown in the Survey are of very recent date If all civilised States continue in their attempts to protect their workers from the effects of ill health and ill luck, they will, let us hope, inevitably be drawn to the necessity of protecting all their inhabitants from the greatest misfortune of all—war.

VENATOR.

Economic and Social Investigations in Manchester, 1833-1933

A Centenary History of the Manchester Statistical Society. By T. S. ASHTON. (P. S. King, 1934.) 5s. net.

IN 1834 the Statistical Society of London came into being, and having survived and prospered for more than fifty years it assumed its present splendour in 1887 by becoming the Royal Statistical Society. This year, two of its most distinguished Fellows have fittingly recounted the story of its first hundred years in an elegant centenary volume of Annals. It forms an impressive record of achievement.

Statisticians and students of the social sciences have, of course, all been aware that the account which the London society has given of itself could be at least paralleled by Manchester, and that the distinction of seniority belongs to the Manchester Statistical Society; but few of them (unless indeed they belong to the select band of actual members) will have anticipated so substantial a contribution to knowledge, so illustrious a line of membership and so significant an influence as is revealed in Mr. Ashton's Centenary History. The Manchester Statistical Society was the first-fruit of the famous meeting of the British Association in Cambridge in 1833. It was followed in the next year by the Statistical Society of London, and these two alone survive to-day from among those which were formed in these and other centres. Mr. Ashton's delightful book, at once entertaining and informative, will be enjoyed by many who are neither Manchester men nor statisticians. It forms a valuable addition to the history of social endeavour.

Those who founded and developed the Society were business men

rather than officials, men who regarded their leisure merely as an opportuunity to divert their energy from private to public work. The Manchester Statistical Society was to them merely one of their instruments of social investigation, with the object of social reform constantly in their mind; their social surveys and papers on mortality, on public health and public education reflect their main interest. What distinguished their work from that of some of their contemporaries was its lack of sentimentality—a study of their careful investigations would go far towards correcting some still current theories of the social consequences of the industrial revolution. Not unnaturally, a society which included bankers among its active members devoted much of its time also to consideration of monetary policy; and modern students of trade-cycle theory will be grateful to Mr. Ashton for his emphasis on the pioneer work of William Langton, T. H. Williams, John Mills and of course Stanley Jevons in this field. The influence of the work done by members of the Society during the first hundred years of its existence may well be judged from the valuable appendix containing a list of the reports and papers which have been presented since 1833. The Manchester Statistical Society is to be congratulated on both its history and its historian.

A. P.

LAW AND PRACTICE OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT

An Introduction to the Law of Local Government and Administration

By Sir WILLIAM E. HART and W. O. HART. (Butterworth & Co.) 21s. net.

THIS book deals with a subject which has often been handled before, but it has a character of its own. It combines principle and detail and maintains a just balance between them. This character its authors are well qualified to supply. Sir William Hart knows from his experience as a Town Clerk that when the local government officer turns to a book to inform himself or refresh his memory on some matter with which he has to deal, he wishes to know with precision, and not merely in a general way, what is the law of the matter and what are the salient points to bear in mind. Mr. W. O. Hart knows as a University lecturer that if his students are to understand a subject and retain it in their minds, he must explain the principles which underlie the working details, and moreover that, if he wants to interest them, he will be wise to give them some history showing how the present position was reached. This is well worth doing even at the cost of some space. There are books intended for students in which the various details are as little co-ordinated as the separate

items in a cross-word puzzle. Such books are as useless as they are tedious. The present work manages to bring the details into their proper places.

Accordingly, we find the causes given for the alteration of areas and the creation of new authorities before we pass to the complicated provisions (unnecessarily complicated, the reader will think) relating to charters, electoral divisions, and wards. Similarly, a simple account is given of the local government franchise and this is then elaborated. Characteristic chapters, which will interest members of the Institute of Public Administration, are those on delegated legislation and administrative law. There is a very good account, considering its brevity, of local government in London.

In some respects, to use an expression used by the authors (p. 119) matters are put " rather too dogmatically to be completely true." It is stating the point too broadly to say (p. 114) that the control of Ministers over their Departments is necessarily slight. On p. 428 it is said that the transformation of the Local Government Board into the Ministry of Health " signified that the future policy of the Department should be primarily based on considerations of health." But in fact, although there was undoubtedly a bias in that direction, the change was actually part of a new scheme for organizing the departments of Government according to subject matter, instead of (in part) according to the persons or bodies whose activities they supervised. This operation in the case of the Ministry of Health was not completed: it was left with functions which, to be true to the theory, it ought to have shed. It may be doubted whether the general argument on page 1 whereby local government is derived from the duty of the State to maintain internal peace accords with the actual facts of history and human nature, though Herbert Spencer would have agreed with it.

On points of detail: the Rules Publication Act, 1893, applies to the statutory rules which are not liable to be annulled by Parliament at all, as well as to those (see p. 301) which are liable to be annulled after coming into effect; and the exemption for rules made by the Minister of Health only applies to such functions of the Minister as were transferred directly from the Local Government Board: it does not apply to functions of the Minister under statutes passed after 1919, even though they relate to matters of local government or public health. The returns made to the Minister with regard to loans, mentioned on pages 167 and 325, do not show the expenditure of the borrowed money but the provision made for repaying it.

But these are small points and in the main the book attains a high level of accuracy, looking to the amount of detail brought into it. It deserves to be, and probably will be, largely used. E. H. R.

Reviews

The Law relating to Local Authorities

By W. Ivor Jennings. clvi + 991 pp. (Chas. Knight & Co., Ltd., London.) 45s.

The Local Government Act of 1933 is the first part of a much-needed consolidation of the law of local government. Consolidation is a big job because of the numerous Acts, the variations in different Acts, seemingly on no settled principle, and the need of modernising provisions without big changes inconsistent with the primary object of consolidation. The Government wisely appointed a Committee for the task, with the late Lord Chelmsford as chairman, and the Act of 1933 resulted as a first harvest. The very size of the present scheme indicates the wide scope of the Act. In the present volume, the Act is given section by section, with notes, which no doubt will later need much expansion. The volume is prefaced by a long and interesting introduction dealing with such matters as Local Authorities and the law, Corporations, *Ultra Vires* and Proceedings against Local Authorities. It is important for administrators to know where the new law modifies the old, and helpful " Tables of Comparisons " are given, indicating the source from which provisions in the Act of 1933 have been taken and whether there has been any substantive amendment of the old law. Provisions on related matters contained in a number of old laws still in force are reproduced, with some notes.

I. G. G.

The Rating and Valuation Acts, 1925 to 1932

By G. P. Warner Terry. civ and 1,308 pp. (London: Charles Knight & Co., 1934.) £3 3s.

Mr. Warner Terry's books on the Rating and Valuation Acts of 1925 and 1928 have been much used by local financial officers. The former reached a third edition within a few months of publication. He has now combined them in the present book and brought them up to date. Statutory changes, a spate of Rules and Orders, and a number of decisions have made the volume bulky and expensive. Nevertheless it is likely to be received with as much favour as its predecessors. The Local Government Act, 1933, was passed after the main body of the book was written, but an addendum enables the reader to make the necessary alterations after the 1st June, when the Act came into force.

The book is made up of (1) a long Introduction; (2) the Rating and Valuation Acts, fully annotated; (3) other statutes, fully annotated, which are necessary to an understanding of the Rating and Valuation Acts; (4) Rating and Valuation law in London; (5) the Representations of the Central Valuation Committee; (6) a selection

of the most important of the Orders and Circulars, together with a complete list of such Orders, &c., and (7) a treatise on the law and practice relating to the recovery of Rates.

There are the usual tables of statutes and cases, and a good index. The book contains some material which is not to be found conveniently printed elsewhere and should be one of the standard works on its subject.

W. I. J.

The Housewife and the Town Hall

By Mrs. H. A. L. Fisher. 113 pages. (Ivor Nicholson & Watson.) 2s. 6d.

One of the ways in which our system of local government is most lacking is attributable to a failure on the part of those responsible to demonstrate to the public what it is and what it does. " Public Relations " as a serious study for the administrator is only just beginning to be recognised in this country. Consequently we have to face the lamentable fact that, excellent as some of the results of local government may be, the ordinary citizen knows very little about them, and exhibits only rarely any very considerable pride in his local institutions—a fact which is reflected in the statistics of local elections. For this reason books like Mrs. Fisher's are to be warmly welcomed. It is not an easy task that they seek to perform, for it is as yet hardly begun. But one hopes that in the future it will become easier, for the popular projection of local government, successfully accomplished, cannot but have the effect of persuading the system itself towards a greater simplicity.

Mrs. Fisher writes for a public which it is plain that she knows well —the members of the Women's Institutes. That she is able to do this is one of the most encouraging signs of the times, for the giving of practical advice concerning the inescapably utilitarian details of local government implies some association of people whose willingness to receive it has already been stimulated. And this the two sister organizations—the Women's Institutes and the Townswomen's Guilds —are endeavouring to bring about.

The book (particularly in the Chapters on " The Baby " and " Schools and School Children ") is an admirable mixture of civics and practical advice. Its main defects spring from the fact that it tries to do too much; at times one feels that the whole province of government is under consideration. Perhaps that must be so when it is written within the walls of an Oxford College! There should have been less emphasis on theory and less space devoted to the workings of the central government, and much more about how to get the drains tested, what to do if you think the milk is watered, if

the house next door is overcrowded, or if you are unfortunate enough not to be able to pay your rates. And the use to which Mrs. Fisher hopes her book will be put will surely be limited by the lack of both bibliography and index. The style suffers from being too direct a transcript of B.B.C. talks, but the matter is admirably free from irrelevant details such as the dates of Acts of Parliament, or their sections. It is probably impossible to avoid giving the impression that all is for the best in the best of all local government systems in such a simple handling of complicated matters, but there are one or two statements which could have been avoided, whose presence in the book gives us rather a shock—such as that Guardians were " people who were determined to do everything possible to help those for whom they were responsible."

FIAT LUX.

Survey of Public Health Nursing

By the National Organisation for Public Health Nursing (Katharine Tucker, General Director; Hortense Hilbert, Assistant Director for the Survey). xvi and 262 pp. (New York: The Commonwealth Fund; London: Humphrey Milford.) 1934. 8s. 6d. net.

NURSING services, like many other organisations which have passed from infancy into a vigorous adult life, have shown different phases in their development. From an organisation which was concerned solely with the care of the sick there grew numerous off-shoots which tended to become larger than the parent and which differed much in their purposes and the methods by which they were administered. A further stage in the growth of these services has been an attempt at co-ordination of the different members into something approximating to a coherent whole.

In the United States of America it is evidently felt that the process of co-ordination can be carried still further, and the present volume is the Report of a survey made by the National Organisation for Public Health Nursing. The report deals with practically every aspect of the various services. The survey was carried out by a special staff, and the material consisted of the nursing services in twenty-eight cities, towns and counties in the United States. In these communities there were sixty-eight official and unofficial nursing agencies, and fifty-seven of these could be classified into three groups:—(*a*) Public Health Nursing Associations; (*b*) Departments of Health; and (*c*) Boards of Education. The members of the Public Health Nursing Associations deal with the sick in their homes, and this service is analogous to those branches of public nursing which in this country are not administered by official bodies such as health departments and education authorities. Consequently, critical reports of the work of

these members of the nursing profession are not readily available in Britain, and the present report gives suggestive criticisms which might possibly be applied on this side of the Atlantic. From a perusal of the report it is evident that in the United States the number of different agencies which employ nurses is large. Though at least eight different agencies come within the scope of this review, the emphasis is placed almost entirely on the work of the three groups noted above.

The recommendations of the Committee are set out in full and are rather difficult to summarise, since they are applied to conditions which are, in many instances, peculiar to American methods. It is emphasised that those boards which administer the work of nurses should not consist entirely of women. Much space is given to a discussion of the means by which nurses are prepared for their special types of work, and it would appear that the methods are still so diverse as to constitute a major problem. From an analysis of the efficiency of nurses which was made—usually on the four-fold basis of general relations with their patients, actual nursing technique, ability to give instruction, and general adequacy of their work—it was shown that those nurses who had received adequate theoretical instruction, by means of graduate courses or otherwise, were more satisfactory than the older type of nurse who had learned mainly from experience. An investigation of the general efficiency of the various services showed that those services which dealt actually with the sick patient were more efficient than those—such as the school nursing service—which dealt mainly with preventive matters.

The Report is a lengthy one and contains information which is probably not available elsewhere. As a work of reference it will be found useful by those who deal with the administration of the nursing services. As a book for perusal, however, it is not quite so successful, since the data which were collected are presented with such detail that the reading is heavy, and in the intricacies of the analysis the ultimate goal tends to be obscured. It is admitted in the Report that many of the conclusions which emerged from the Survey were already known, and the reader may perhaps be pardoned for wondering whether the more intensive studies along these lines, which are called for by the Committee, would lead to results of far-reaching importance.

E. A. U.

Two Handbooks

The Municipal Year Book, 1934. (Chicago: International City Managers' Association.)

City of Birmingham Handbook, 1934. (Birmingham: Published for the Corporation by the City of Birmingham Information Bureau.)

THE former of these is the first issue of an authoritative year book

for American cities. It has come into being in a year of depression, in which (as stated by one of the writers) one state, several cities, and hundreds of smaller municipalities have defaulted; and the first thing to notice about it is the high courage and enterprise of its outlook. The purpose of the book, as stated on its title page, is to give " an authoritative resumé of activities and statistical data of American cities "; but in fact the most noticeable, and to an Englishman the most interesting, part of the book is not covered by this description, but consists of the introductory articles, in which the broad features of the present situation are looked at. Naturally the financial side is much in evidence; the balancing of budgets and the tapping of new sources of revenue are matters of concern, but the writers are so far from being reduced to helplessness by their difficulties that they look at the new features of the situation—and especially at the close relation with the central Government at Washington into which the cities have for the first time in their history been brought by the administration of relief works—as matters from which new possibilities may be won.

It may be in fact that the corner has been turned. Mr. Howard P. Jones, after mentioning that in the spring of 1933 taxpayers' orgainsations were formed by the hundreds to cut the cost of government, goes on to say: " There has been a very definite transformation in citizen psychology in most sections of the country during the last six months. From ' How can we cut the cost of local government? ' the question has been turned to ' How can we keep local government running? '."

Another writer points out (what has been noticed also in England) that the difficulties of financing local government increase with the size of the city and grow at more than a proportionate rate. Many of the services may be performed more cheaply per unit of cost, but a higher standard of performance is demanded, and moreover there are new functions of government which the smaller authorities do not undertake at all. " The growth in size brings new demands for service. Such things as medical clinics, milk inspection, family welfare work, the maintenance of hospitals, colleges, universities, or art museums are not thought of in the towns or rural centres."

The Birmingham Handbook would serve as a comment on this. It is an amazing picture of what a modern city can undertake, whether regard is had to the variety or to the extent of its activities. Not that the Birmingham standard is a usual standard or has been achieved all at once. " At no time in its history," says the Handbook with pardonable pride, " has Birmingham so nearly approached the modern conception of a perfect city." This history of all this is set out in the Handbook; and (although democracy is apt to be forgetful

of its predecessors) tribute is paid there to the Town Commissioners who built the Town Hall and purchased the market rights of the borough in the early part of the nineteenth century as well as to the achievements of more modern times. The book is an interesting one and not a mere catalogue.

E. H. R.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN AMERICA

Law and Practice of Municipal Home Rule, 1916-1930

By JOSEPH D. MCGOLDRICK, Assistant Professor of Government in Columbia University. xiv and 431 pp. (New York: Columbia University Press. London: Humphrey Milford, 1933.) 24s. 6d.

" THE government of our cities, to put the matter mildly, has never been the source of much pride for Americans. The conduct of municipal business has almost universally been inept and inefficient, and at times it has sunk to humiliating depths of corruption. At its best it has rarely achieved more than an unimaginative, inert routine; at its worst it has been unspeakable, almost incredible."

The movement for " home rule "—that is, the freedom of municipalities to develop as they pleased, without having to go to State legislature for an amendment of their constitutions or the extension of their powers—was one of the remedies for this state of affairs. For State control has meant, not the control of the legislature, but control by the representative from the city in the legislature, or, in the case of a larger city, control by the " machine " that put the politicians into the legislature and on the city council. Thus, the home rule movement is " part of the broader movement to liberate cities from organised corruption, and restore control to the so-called, or self-called, good citizens."

In 1916 Professor McBain published what is now the standard work on *The Law and Practice of Municipal Home Rule*. Professor McGoldrick has written his book as a supplement to Professor McBain's work. He takes the sixteen states in which constitutional provisions establish home rule for some or all of the cities, and examines the judicial interpretations and the practices which have arisen. Two final chapters discuss the relation of Home Rule Cities to the State, and the scope of " Municipal Affairs." The Appendix gives the various constitutional provisions.

Comparisons between home rule in the American States and in England would be difficult. The constitutions of English towns are laid down in general legislation; their powers are rigidly limited by statute. If, however, the recurring demand for an enabling

Bill were met, this book would give some help in indicating the problems of interpretation that would be met. It is a worthy successor to Professor McBain's.

W. I. J.

Local Government in the United States: a Challenge and an Opportunity

By MURRAY SEASONGOOD. 145 pp. (Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass.). $1.50.

MURRAY SEASONGOOD is one of the outstanding municipal personalities in the United States. He was one of the small group whose initiative, courage and pertinacity transformed Cincinatti from one of the worst governed to one of the best governed of cities. He describes how the marvellous transformation was brought about and improvements effected, and that with reduced city tax rate; also how reforms have been compassed in Hamilton County, despite an antiquated form of government which plays into the hands of those seeking plunder. He considers the hindrances to good local government in the United States and how they may be overcome, the hindrances including the foreign-born and Negro elements, the American party system and its inter-dependence with local gangs, the shortcomings of the Press, unfriendly State legislatures and overlapping governments. " . . . . the most hopeful indication of improved local government lies in the spread of the merit system, although . . . . in thirty-nine States, 2,500 cities . . . . , practically all the counties . . . . and thousands of towns and villages public employees are still selected by victorious politicians . . . ." Women play a great part in maintaining good government in Cincinatti, and in the author's view " women in politics offer new hope to their faltering male associates." This little book enables the reader in small compass to obtain a good idea of the depths to which local government can fall in the States and the heights to which it may be carried with courage, ability and persistence, and is itself an inspiration to achieve these heights.

I. G. G.

Charter Revision for the City of New York

A Plan prepared by the Division of Research in Public Administration, Department of Government, Washington Square College, New York University. (Published by New York University.)

" THE Division of Public Administration of the Department of Government of the Washington Square College was organised last year for the purpose of focussing expert attention on the major administrative problems of the metropolitan New York area "; so says the chairman of the committee which considered this charter

revision, and the quotation indicates the gulf which separates some American universities from those of this country. At present the principal organs of New York government are a Mayor, elected at large; a Board of Estimate and Apportionment, which largely controls finance and includes the President of the Board of Aldermen, the Comptroller (an elected officer) and the five Borough Presidents (also elected within their respective Boroughs, five in all; Borough functions are few); and a Board of 65 Aldermen, similar to our councillors but not with much power. There are several Boards for particular purposes, some elected, some appointed, and a large number of elected judicial and legal officers. A good old jungle it all appears to the English mind, accustomed to at any rate some measure of simplicity in government. The new charter which is suggested provides for a Council of 25 to 35 members, to be elected by proportional representation with each Borough as an electoral division; of a Mayor, who would be the administrative head and would be elected by preferential ballot; and of Borough Councils, not to be separately elected but to be comprised of the respective Borough members on the City Council; all other officers and Boards to be appointive. Proposals are also made for reforming the local judicial system, now in a " condition closely approaching chaos ": for instance, some judges are elected, some appointed by the State Governor, some by the Mayor, some by judges of higher Courts. The report sets out other suggested reforms, including those of administrative departments. For education, a Board of 7 members is recommended, 5 appointed by the Mayor, 2 by the teachers, the Board to deal with policy, administration being left to the Superintendent. Incidentally, stress is laid on reporting to the public, including the use of the municipal radio.

The report is a good piece of work. The government of New York would be very much simplified and should be materially improved if the recommendations were carried out. The United States is fertile of constitutions and charters—the spirit of Sièyes must find there a congenial home. The chances of effecting reform are difficult to assess, New York has a tough hide, but with a reforming and vigorous Mayor and the prevailing spirit of the " New Deal " they seem rosier than for many years; but time lag may still beat the reformers.

I. G. G.

THE LAW AND THE CONSTITUTION

The Law and Constitution

By W. Ivor Jennings. 263 pp. (University of London Press, Ltd.) 6s. 6d. net.

A book well worth reading. It clarifies notions about the State and

its institutions, and in particular removes misconceptions due to too trustful an acceptance of Dicey. At the same time we cannot but feel that the book might have been better still had the author not hung so many of his sermons on texts from Dicey, useful though this may be to the young student. Some will consider also that there is much more to Dicey than might be thought from the author's criticisms, justified though they may be. Mr. Jennings brings out, what is obvious to those who think, that legally government in these countries is at bottom as autocratic as in the most autocratic of régimes, in the sense that Parliament is supreme, and that the real safeguards are in the traditions and sentiments of the people. This, of course, is essentially true of any community. The fundamentals of politics lie in social psychology.

The scope of the volume is indicated by saying that it deals, among other matters, with the meaning and significance of the " unwritten constitution," the reign of law, the nature of constitutional conventions, the supremacy of Parliament, the place of the civil and local government services, administrative law and the relation of the Courts to Parliament and administrative authorities, incidentally mildly slaying again, by the way, the already much slain Montesquieu. It is suggested that the author goes too far in saying that there is no difference between the judicial and the administrative function in essence; in theory, a clear distinction can be drawn, though in practice certain kinds of strictly judicial functions may more advantageously be exercised by an authority which is primarily administrative. Mr. Jennings also makes some interesting comments on the relation of the Imperial Parliament to those of the Dominions.

The author emphasises, what is apt to be neglected in learned expositions of the law and constitution, that the bases of government and of administration are social and psychological. It is obviously true that " law is based on general acquiescence not upon force," but he seems to ride this horse a little too hard and, typical of the laudable post-war reaction against force in many quarters, to understate the part played also by force, or the power to resort to force. Again, many will not agree that Parliament " never passes any laws which any substantial section of the population violently dislikes "; indeed many will violently dissent (unless " substantial " be stretched far beyond its due warrant), although few will disagree with the latter statement that " Parliament is the legal sovereign and the electors the political sovereign." It is a little unfortunate that the book should end with a statement which to many will appear to be an unfortunate and misleading half-truth—that " ' The rule of law ' was always a political doctrine; and it had no validity after the Constitution rejected

the concept of public order and developed instead the concept of public service."

Many other interesting points are made by Mr. Jennings on which it is difficult to resist the temptation to comment, which is in itself a tribute to a volume which should prove of high value to the student.

N.

The Parliamentary Powers of English Government Departments

By JOHN WILLIS. 214 pp. (Cambridge: Harvard University Press. London: Humphrey Milford, 1933.) 16s. 6d. net.

THE Lord Chief Justice has inspired some valuable research. Mr. Willis's study of the legislative powers of Ministers was undertaken on account of *The New Despotism*, and it succeeds in controverting the Lord Chief Justice's main conclusions in this field. Lord Hewart, he says, " knows more of law in action than law in books." Mr. Willis has gone to the books and, above all, to the books in which the statutes are to be found. He has discovered 22 examples of the Henry VIII clause and 150 examples of the " as if enacted in this Act " clause. He explains why these and other provisions were inserted; and they are not the explanations given by the Lord Chief Justice.

But the author of this book is far more than a collector of relevant facts. Anyone who works at Harvard under Professor Frankfurter must realise that law is not something which is found in books. Mr. Willis has made the most of his opportunities, and has developed a strong instinct for seeing into the realities of constitutional organisation and judicial administration. From the chaos of judicial opinion that is made evident by an examination of the case law on delegated legislation he deduces that " in matters of government, where prejudices are strong and passions easily aroused, the deciding factor must inevitably be the personal preferences of the Court before whom the case comes." On the other hand, he finds in the House of Lords " a strong sense of the realities." These two quotations indicate the author's insight. They could be matched by many more. Also, he possesses a remarkable ability for expression and a fine sense of humour.

The main body of the work was written before the publication of the Donoughmore Report. His conclusions are in principle the same as those of the Report, though he had to provide the material for himself and could not use the two volumes of Appendices which have since been produced. A postscript discusses the Report itself, and the author's more considered views may be found in an article

in the *Iowa Law Review* for January, 1933. There is a very useful Appendix, giving especially a classified list of statutory provisions.

W. I. J.

The Law and Organisation of the British Civil Service

By N. E. Mustoe, M.A., LL.B. Pp. 199. (Pitman.) 7s. 6d.

In this volume the author, who is both a Barrister and a Civil Servant, has set out to bring together in an orderly and concise fashion the legal and other rules relating to the Civil Service, which, as he states, are dispersed among a large number of statutes, Orders in Council, Treasury Minutes and Circulars and other documents. In achieving his object, he has produced a very readable treatise, prefacing it with a historical survey. It will be of general interest to civil servants and to Establishment Officers in particular. An appendix sets out scales of salary and, although no indication is given of the bonus rate for each, yet this is now of little moment, as, since the work was published, the consolidation of bonus with salary took place as from the 1st July, 1934, details of which are readily ascertainable from official quarters.

The answer to the question "Who is a Civil Servant?" is shown to be one of some difficulty, to be decided on the facts of each particular case. The author's definition, so far as one is possible, is that the Civil Service is a body of officials in the service of the Crown, who discharge duties belonging to the exercise of the King's executive powers, but not being members of His Majesty's naval, military or air forces, and not being the holders of political office. As the author remarks, however, it is impossible to say how far down the scale there is a limit, if at all, below which none are civil servants. Judges are clearly outside the definition and, though the author does not comment on the fact, it will be remembered that the constitutional doctrine that the Judges are not the servants of the Crown was much in evidence at the time criticisms were advanced as to the method adopted when the economy cuts were applied to the Judges in 1931.

It is of interest to be reminded that the embargo on the entry of conscientious objectors into the Civil Service was raised in 1929, that no aliens may be civil servants, that civil servants, unlike local government officers, cannot sue for their salary, that it is for civil servants to supply information as to extra-official qualifications, such as degrees, diplomas, &c., for inclusion in the Annual Reports which have to be considered by the Promotions Boards, and that the Saturday half-holiday is, theoretically in any event, not of general application. The legal view that their pay is not to be considered as a reward for services, but to enable them to perform their duties may not be shared by the general body of civil servants and from the

practical aspect it is not surprising that this is not put forward as an argument in connection with the consideration of salary adjustments.

Departmental rules are of course outside the scope of the work. These rules vary on such minor matters as whether Saturday counts as a whole or half-day for leave purposes and whether Sunday counts as a day's absence in the calculation of sick leave. It seems doubtful whether there is any need for these variations or whether it would not be more equitable to have rules on these and other such like matters applicable throughout the Service.

Two almost identical paragraphs appear on pages 131 and 149 as to the superannuation payable on retirement due to abolition of office.

The author reminds us that a civil servant must be discreetly reticent in discussing public affairs, particularly those relating to his own department, a rule which, on occasion, has robbed certain papers read before the Institute and the discussions thereon of some of their value and frankness.

N. V. R.

LAW AND CONSTITUTIONAL PRACTICE IN AMERICA

Judicial Control of the Federal Trade Commission and the Interstate Commerce Commission, 1920-1930

By CARL MCFARLAND. (Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts.) (London: Humphrey Milford, Oxford University Press.) Pp. 188. $3.50.

THIS work deals with the problem of judicial control over administrative boards and commissions and is a comparative study of the relations of the courts from 1920 to 1930 to the Federal Trade Commission and the Interstate Commerce Commission, which are the two independently constituted commissions of the United States of America charged with the regulation of trade and transportation.

The author states in his introduction that the theory which treats the justice dispensed by courts and the social control exercised by administrative tribunals as parts of a single system of law in which the courts wield ultimate authority is older in American jurisprudence than the alternative theory which recognizes a dual system of public administration of justice and seeks a division of function between courts and administrative agencies so that some administrative determinations are final while others are subject to judicial supervision. He states that " during the last half-century administrative justice has been pressing for recognition, and in consequence there has been a development and readjustment of theory to admit the dual system

which has been the concomitant of the change from individualistic political philosophy toward social legislation and public control."

Both commissions appear to have had an uphill task. The principle of the separation of powers into legislative, judicial and executive has been a primary obstacle. The Interstate Commerce Commission was created by an Act of 1887, and in 1889 was judicially held not to be invested with any authority to enforce its decision or award and invested only with administrative powers of supervision which fall far short of making the board a court, or its action judicial in the proper sense of the term. Since that date, however, the orders of the commission have been made effective without judicial action. Nevertheless, nearly twenty years elapsed before any real discretion in the commission was recognized. Now the commission is recognized as a delegated authority with which the courts ordinarily do not interfere.

The Federal Trade Commission, on the other hand, has been restricted to the exercise of only preliminary, investigative power and the federal courts have dealt freely with its orders.

The demand that administrative agencies should be held within the scope of the authority granted to them by the legislature and that those limits should not be left for the agencies themselves to determine appears to have been as vocal in America as in this country and with greater cause; for in England there is nothing in the way of administrative justice to compare with the federal agency created by the Interstate Commerce Commission.

There is stated to be no formula which separates the work of the courts from that of the commissions, nor which explains the different judicial treatment of the two administrative bodies. This work shows to what effect the courts have exercised their power over the two commissions.

One of the popular reasons for the establishment of the Federal Trade Commission is stated to be that those who give their whole time to the problem, and thereby become specialists, should make determinations which should be given effect through the courts. A review of the extent to which judicial control has been exercised shows, however, that the judges " substitute their own opinions for those of the commissioners or, even when sustaining the commission, hold themselves in readiness to reverse or modify orders with which they do not agree." The Federal Trade Commission Act declares that " unfair methods of competition " in commerce are unlawful. The words quoted are not defined by the Act and it has been held that it is for the courts, and not the commission, ultimately to determine as a matter of law what they include. The author states that under the broad prohibition of " unfair methods of competition " it is difficult

cult to determine in various cases whether the courts are interpreting the Act or reviewing the sufficiency of the evidence to constitute an accepted offence, and in conclusion states that if Congress were persuaded to overhaul the statutes, the courts would be inclined to give the administrative agency a more adequate measure of authority.

In the case of the Interstate Commerce Commission judicial control appears in some instances to have bordered upon judicial interference and there has been pressure also from government departments. Nevertheless, the commission appears to stand high in popular estimation and is regarded as being the foremost example of administrative justice in the United States. Its work is of considerable popular and professional interest and, despite criticism, it is an established and authoritative institution.

A final chapter contains a comparison of the achievements of the two commissions, from which it is clear that the commerce commission has had considerably more success. While its orders are subject to be set aside for excess of authority or disregard or insufficiency of evidence, the trade commission's orders are subject to a judicial reconsideration on the record taken before the commissioners. In making any comparison, it has to be borne in mind that, while the commerce commission deals with public utilities, *e.g.*, railways, the trade commission has a more difficult task, dealing as it does with the mercantile world. The author states that there has been a lack of tact, harmony and statesmanship in the trade commission and regards further legislation as necessary to make the system of administrative regulation of trade fully effective.

The work deals with a subject which has no real comparison with any institutions of this country, but nevertheless provides an interesting field of study for students of administrative law and comparative public administration. N. V. R.

ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANISATION

Organisation as a Technical Problem

By L. URWICK. (International Management Institute.)

THIS booklet contains a paper read before the British Association in September, 1933, complete with an *apparatus criticus* of quotations and diagrams. It amplifies, and in many respects clarifies, Mr. Urwick's theory of the application to industry of the military type of organisation—a theory familiar to readers of his " Management of To-morrow." In particular it brings out the double meaning of the word " staff," which has led to some confusion: " the wider sense implies all specialized troops and services; the narrower sense, some-

times qualified as ' general staff,' implies selected officers who assist the commander in carrying out his work of command." The executive authority of the staff in the narrower sense of the word is simply the reflexion of their chief's; their prime functions are to co-ordinate and to advise.

The administration of the British Government is very justly singled out as an example of thoroughly bad co-ordination. And Mr. Urwick makes a justified protest against the view that provided you get the right men in the right places, organization can be left to look after itself.

In his previous works the author has been fair—and more than fair—in his references to the Civil Service. He lapses from his own standard when he writes in this booklet: " Any suggestion of change of direction meets the insuperable objection ' The Civil Service wouldn't like it.' "

The booklet contains excellent material, which by expansion could be made more readable. One looks forward to the time when it will be available in a more permanent, legible and accessible form.

W. D. S.

Secretarial Practice of Public Service Companies

By E. G. JANES, A.C.I.S. 278 pp. (Sir Isaac Pitman & Sons Ltd.) 10s. 6d.

IN this volume Mr. Janes endeavours, with considerable success, to bring together the principal subjects which are encountered in the secretarial office of a public utility company. He deals with, among other things, such matters as share, stock and debenture capital, meetings, minutes and dividends, making reference whenever necessary to the Companies Clauses Acts and the legal decisions thereon. Private Bill and Provisional Order procedure is also described and the book is rounded off by a chapter on statistics and three appendices containing Forms, Statutes and Stock Exchange Rules respectively.

All this detailed information is given clearly and concisely, but in this case conciseness has its disadvantages. Public utility companies cover a wide variety of services, *e.g.*, gas, harbours and tramways and each service has its own peculiarities. Even for companies providing the same service there exist statutory differences arising chiefly from the different opposition encountered or the different dates at which the companies obtained their powers. Mr. Janes does not attempt to deal with these differences—and indeed it is both impossible and unnecessary to do so in a general book—but at least more stress might have been laid upon the necessity of the secretary

being conversant with the statutory provisions relating peculiarly to his own company. In this connection also the book would have gained in usefulness to both the secretary and the student if a select bibliography of the chief legal works on each type of service had been added.

D. N. C.

ECONOMIC THEORY

The Theory of Wages

By PAUL H. DOUGLAS. (Macmillan.) 20s. net.

OUT of a winning international prize essay of 1926-27 on the title-subject, Professor Douglas has developed with the labour of the intervening years an elaborate inductive study of the basic statistics of production and population in America and some other countries during the first quarter of the 20th century; and, as stated in the author's preface, these statistics treated from the point of view of wages-theory, rather than the theory of wages itself, form the subject matter of this book.

The author's aim of so handling the available facts as to wed them with classical general economic theory, will win universal sympathy; and it would be churlish to quarrel either with a certain discursiveness in the statement of the parts of the theory to be applied or with the simplifications and omissions which clearly had to be made. The former is almost inherent in the broad historical treatment appropriate to the subject, and the latter are never allowed to mislead the reader by receding into the background. Professor Douglas is most careful to emphasise the limitations involved, for example, in the inductive formulæ which he uses.

The book contains much interesting material, is fully documented throughout, and includes what would appear to be an almost exhaustive bibliography.

H. T.

Economic Essays in Honour of Gustav Cassel

20th October, 1933. 8vo., pp. 720. (London: Allen & Unwin. 1933.) 20s. net.

ALIKE for the breadth of his views and the singular unity of his system Professor Cassel has secured an outstanding position in contemporary economic science. All students of modern economic theory will welcome this imposing *Festschrift* as a well-deserved testimony to the influence which he has exercised on the development of economic thought.

Reviews

Fifty economists, among whom are some of the best-known names in modern economic literature, have contributed essays in his honour. The subjects range over almost the whole field of general economics and there are papers in English, German, French and Italian. As may be expected they reflect the prominence which current discussions give to problems of currency banking, the price level, economic stabilization and the trade cycle.

Comment in detail upon each of the papers will not be expected here. Not the least satisfaction which it may be hoped Professor Cassel will derive from this tribute will be the interest and high quality of the work of the Scandinavian contributors (*inter alia* J. Akerman, E. Heckscher, E. Lindahl, G. Myrdal, B. Ohlin, J. Pederesen, F. Zeuthen). The volume, in honouring Professor Cassel, affords in this way some recognition also to the eminent contribution which Sweden has made and is making to the development of economic thought. American contributors include Professors J. Angell (" Monetary Control and General Business Stabilization "), J. M. Clark, who argues for a composite commodity currency, Paul H. Douglas, who summarizes the argument of his new " Theory of Wages," Frank H. Knight, whose paper on " Capitalistic Production, Time and the Rate of Return," is one of outstanding interest, and Professor E. R. A. Seligman. Professor J. H. Hollander undertakes to expound " American Public Opinion on War Debts " in an essay whose relevance both in its tone and its subject matter to a collection such as this, is, to say the least, not very apparent.

MM. Landry and Simiand are among the well-known writers who lend distinction to the contributions from France.

Sir Josiah Stamp and Professors Gregory and D. H. Macgregor represent England. Professor Gregory, in a philosophical disquisition on " Economic Theory and Human Liberty," presents a closely reasoned argument on fundamental questions of a type in which he excels. Sir Josiah Stamp's five pages are devoted to seven special weaknesses which he suggests that recent experience has revealed in the London money market.

F. R. COWELL.

Monopoly: A History and Theory

By VERNON A. MUND, Ph.D. Princeton University Press. pp. 164. (London: Humphrey Milford, 1933.) 13s. 6d. net.

THIS short work by an Assistant Professor of Economics at the University of Washington (Seattle) will no doubt prove a useful introduction for examination students and others wishing to gain a general idea of the development of economic thought on the subject.

In the first 90 pages the author sketches the history of monopoly

from the dawn of civilization until the publication of the " Masquerade of Monopoly " by Professor Fetter in 1931, a book which he considers to have marked a new epoch in monopoly theory. Clearly it is impossible to do more than outline the subject in so short a space and in these circumstances, Dr. Mund might have strengthened his bibliography considerably, *e.g.*, by the inclusion of studies such as Dr. W. R. Scott's monumental work on Joint Stock Companies, to mention only one outstanding work.

The author defines monopoly as the negation of competition on either side of the exchange process and makes much of the fact that the *market aspect* of monopoly is " fundamental " and " significant." A little more thought on this subject should have indicated to him that this is no very profound discovery. His exposition would have gained in clarity if he had rather insisted upon the fundamental importance of the control of supply on the one hand and the elasticity of demand on the other. Through not making sufficient use of this simple guiding idea, he develops distinctions between true and formal monopoly, absolute and limited monopoly power which are unnecessarily embarrassing in a brief review of the subject.

The concluding section of the work offers little guidance for a practical method of controlling monopoly assuming, as the author evidently does, that control is necessary. He wishes to steer a middle course between the " seductive wiles of visionaries " and the " importunities of selfish business men," and apparently considers that Professor Fetter's remedy " the requirement and enforcement of publicity for all prices in Inter-State commerce " would succeed in abolishing many of the evils perpetrated by monopolists in the U.S.A. through price discrimination.

In view of the reliance placed by the (British) Committee on Trusts established by the Ministry of Reconstruction, in their report (Cd. 9236/1919) upon the investigating machinery of the Federal Trade Commission, and their advocacy of the grant of powers similar to those possessed by the Commission, to the Board of Trade, English readers will be disappointed by Professor Mund's failure to review the Commission's activities in their bearing on his subject. It is an omission, it may be added, which is the more unfortunate in view of the rapidly developing system of codes for American industry and of the demands which have arisen in consequence for a greater measure of protection for the consumer. It would undoubtedly be a heavy task but clearly one of the utmost importance and it is to be hoped that he will be able to enlarge his work to incorporate such a study, should a second edition be required, for he writes clearly and his work has considerable merit.

F. R. COWELL.

Reviews

HISTORY AND POLITICS

History and Lord Macaulay

The New Examen. By JOHN PAGET. With a Critical Introduction by the Rt. Hon. WINSTON S. CHURCHILL, C.H., M.P. pp. xv + 236. (London: The Haworth Press, 1934.) 10s. 6d.

Macaulay als Geschichtschreiber. Von GERHARD WALCHA. pp. 152. (Grosenhain Verlagsdruckerei Georg Weigel, 1931.)

The Whig Interpretation of History. By H. BUTTERFIELD, M.A. pp. vi + 132. (London: G. Bell & Sons.) 4s.

IT will be remembered that in the preface to his book on "Marlborough," Mr. Winston Churchill records that he would probably never have undertaken that work but for his discovery, through the agency of the late Lord Rosebery, of Paget's "New Examen." For in Paget he found a stalwart defender of Marlborough against Macaulay, a defender not only of his personal character and honour but one who claimed to be able to dispute Macaulay's most serious charge, namely, Marlborough's supposed betrayal of the expedition to Brest of 1694, "the basest" in Macaulay's words, "of all the hundred villainies of Marlborough."

Paget's book, although it has not been quite so forgotten as Mr. Churchill pretends, has long been out of print. If, in sponsoring its re-issue in an imposing volume, Mr. Churchill's motive is, using his own language, to assist Truth to affix the label "Liar" to Macaulay's genteel coat-tails ("Marlborough," Vol. 1, p. 146), he has at least the grace to dissemble the fact. While he naturally insists that Paget's corrections must be applied to Macaulay's work, he pays at the same time a handsome tribute to "the immense service which Lord Macaulay has rendered to the English-speaking peoples."

The tribute is deserved and it comes with a special grace from one who had every temptation to repeat the ugly epithets such as the one already cited. It is also valuable as a corrective to the facile and superficial attitude which to-day denounces all history as a myth. Fortunately the lack of patience and real grasp of the problem which such an attitude reveals is unlikely long to be popular. A better understanding of the nature of the historian's task has recently been provided by Mr. Butterfield in his admirable essay, "The Whig Interpretation of History." The only quarrel one can find is with its title, for it invidiously selects for special condemnation Whig historians who write Whig history, whereas the indictment could be drawn perhaps a good deal more cogently against Socialist historians who write Socialist history, Marxist historians who write Marxian history, Catholic historians who write Catholic history and, in short, any kind of propagandist who seeks to make his cam-

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paign respectable by premising what appears to be a chain of historical causation as the basis upon which his main arguments can repose with an air of final inevitability.

When Mr. Butterfield's lesson has been fully learned it will be seen that not a few of those who to-day scoff at Macaulay are themselves no better servants of historical truth than they imagine Macaulay to be. For their verdict is unhistorical inasmuch as it is based upon standards of historical writing which have only become possible in our own day. When Macaulay began to write, the study of history had made little progress in England since the days of Hume and Robertson. The wealth of printed source material now reposing in well-catalogued libraries had not then come into being. English archive administration was a scandal and a disgrace. The Record Commission was making feeble efforts to print limited editions of a few standard texts, the Historical Manuscripts Commission had not even been projected.

It is with some reason, therefore, that Dr. Gerhard Walcha, in his competent thesis on " Macaulay as an Historian," refers to him as the first representative in England of the school of critical historians. That Macaulay did not achieve perfection in this role is, to be sure, unfortunate. Of some sources he was unaware, Dr. Walcha instances especially the German archives, others he used uncritically sometimes for rhetorical effect without adequate investigation. It seems also clear that he could not contemplate past struggles for personal liberty and constitutional reform without being influenced by the memory of the more recent struggles into which he had thrown every ounce of his energy and for which he had cheerfully been prepared to make every sacrifice. As an Englishman who had fought for the Reform Bill he no doubt had personal views on the outcome of the Revolution of 1688 which would certainly be more vivid and intense than those of a foreigner such as von Ranke for example, with whom Dr. Walcha compares him to his disadvantage in this connection. " Macaulay the politician," Mr. Arthur Bryant has justly observed in his recent excellently balanced sketch, " was not in this respect serviceable to Macaulay the historian."

Deeply felt convictions on current political questions were not the only forces which gave a bias to his views of the past. In accordance with the tradition of his time historians usually proceeded to pass moral judgments upon the events they described. This Macaulay was not loth to do. He himself held strong views and by giving them rhetorical expression he was able to heighten the interest and enhance the meaning of his story. His desire to grip and hold the attention of his readers was responsible for the vivid contrast in colouring which led him to overstress some of his antitheses and to over-simplify some

of his characterisations. To such causes must be ascribed that journalistic manner of writing of which Dr. Walcha complains. However justly condemnation may be deserved on these grounds, far less certainty will be felt that an unfavourable verdict must result from the other deficiencies which Dr. Walcha notices; Macaulay's insular outlook, his lack of interest in the more philosophical aspect of historical development, his tendency to subordinate the metaphysical and spiritual to the physical and real.

It is significant for an ultimate judgment upon Macaulay as an historian that critics reviewing his work as a whole almost invariably end upon an eminently laudatory note. (Paget's polemics appearing as articles in *Blackwood's Magazine* in the year in which Macaulay died and at a time when he was broken in health and unable to answer them, did not pretend to any general review.) Faults he undoubtedly had, some of his mistakes were grave. He died before he could give his work its final form. Yet his positive achievement was immense. He won a vast public to historical studies. English history to-day would have been infinitely poorer without him and this, perhaps the most important historical verdict on his work, will secure his fame as long as English letters endure.

F. R. COWELL.

Journalism in Italy

Geschichte der Italienischen Presse. Von ADOLF DRESLER. 2nd edition. 2 vols., pp. 184 and 129. (Munich: R. Oldenburg.) R.M.19.50.

THE comparative neglect of the history of journalism in England is curious and in many ways unfortunate. It is the more surprising because the interest of the subject and its intimate relation to political and economic history has already received ample illustration in many French, German and American works. Herr Dresler's recent work on the Italian press affords a good example.

The history of the Italian press is well worth study for the light it throws on the origins of journalistic activity which began after the end of the 15th century with the written newsletters and early printed news sheets of Rome, Venice, Milan, Genoa and Florence. Political struggles and disunity hindered the subsequent development and in the 18th century French and English models were so superior to the prevalent Italian products that they were somewhat slavishly imitated.

After 1848 the story gains new interest because of its intimate connection with the struggle for Italian unity of which Cavour, Mazzini and Garibaldi were the protagonists. The manner in which they used the press in their campaign was certainly not one of the least important of the factors upon which their ultimate victory depended. In Herr Dresler's second volume the story is told in

considerable detail. He is concerned rather to present the facts than to make any elaborate comment upon them and at times his pages are little more than a catalogue of names, dates and places. He has, however, packed a great deal of information into his two volumes. It may be added that the work is not confined to Italian newspapers and journals printed in Italy, a fact obviously of great importance in the 19th century if only in connection with the Irredentist movement.

The work stops at the year 1900. It is dedicated to Mussolini and its author has an official position in the Nazi movement. It is only fair to add that these factors have not prevented him from detailing at length the manner in which censorship operated to restrain the freedom of the press in Italy in the past.

F. R. COWELL.

Letters of Napoleon

Selected, Translated and Edited by J. M. THOMPSON. pp. 383. (Blackwell.) 10s. 6d.

NAPOLEON was never, of course, an administrator in the sense of an executant of orders in civil government given by his superiors. But for about fifteen years he was the supreme chief of a centralised administrative system covering all France, and the outlying kingdoms. A great opportunity awaits someone who will search through the enormous Correspondence which is available in printed form and build up a picture of Napoleon as a civil administrator. There would, of course, need to be supplementary reference to the Souvenirs and Memoirs left by such people as Bourienne and Chaptal. There would emerge the essentials of a psychology of administration, for which the world is waiting. Not that this is the only way to go about it, but it is a very interesting way; and the subject would be all the more attractive, because exemplified in a genius; and even if we hold that the civilisation which interested him is not the one that would please us, yet the adaptation of men and means to his ends must be the source of profound instruction to us.

Now, in this very interesting selection of *Letters of Napoleon*, Mr. Thompson has evidently wished to throw light on all sides of Napoleon's character, and not merely to illuminate his qualities as an administrator. This aspect, in which readers of the Journal are more interested, perhaps, than in the rest, receives very little consideration. But there are some interesting letters on the general demeanour of those who wield authority, on the character of various people to hold commands (which though military in nature, are nevertheless good pieces of analysis with wider application), of the local government of France and the nature of centralised control, on

education, on public opinion and its discovery, on the writing and the teaching of history.

The Letters *in cumulo* tacitly explain why Napoleon was able to command men as he did. He had a peculiar combination of qualities rightly proportioned to each other. These qualities were: full and precise knowledge of the subjects he handled, and the frankness to ask questions when his own information gave out; pride in knowledge, but not the vanity of omniscience; an extraordinarily rapid assimilation of new facts, and immediate apprehension of their significance—that is the power to *exploit* the facts; dexterous management of other people, the product of understanding them and sensing the appropriate way of handling that particular person; a flatterer when necessary, but a flatterer of genius (like Disraeli); extreme care against looking or being made to look ridiculous in the eyes of the people, whether royalty or peasant, whom he was to govern; decision in tactics and policy, and the employment of a will to gain his ends to the point of brutality; a style in writing and speaking clear, peremptory, fresh, and managed in relation to the purpose of the moment; and, perhaps greatest of all, the refusal to be humbugged by euphemisms, roundabout excuses, cant, and particularly by optimistic accounts of situations where knowledge of the bitter truth was most essential to speedy correction.

HERMAN FINER.

Manifesto

Being the Book of the Federation of Progressive Societies and Individuals. Edited by C. E. M. JOAD. Introduction by H. G. WELLS. pp. 320. (Allen & Unwin, 1934.) 7s. 6d. net.

THE formation of the Federation of Progressive Societies and individuals two years ago was an act of faith by its founder that individuals striving to modify society in one direction would also be prepared to co-operate with others seeking changes along different lines. While it may not be self-evident that those who believe in the need for town and country planning will also be prepared to advocate reform of the sex laws, or that pacifists are necessarily sympathetic to the secularization of the State and the disestablishment of the Church, it has, nevertheless been found that sufficient common agreement upon a general plan of social reform exists to justify the attempt at co-ordination which the Federation represents.

The present volume is a collection of statements by various authors in amplification of the Federation's general aims and objects in the fields of Economics and Politics, Education and Social Questions (Sex, Law Reform, Town and Country Planning, Civil and Religious

Liberties). It is introduced by Mr. H. G. Wells, who has sought to condense the " Common Objectives of Progressive World Effort " and to provide a " strategy " by which that effort may succeed.

It is inevitable that the various contributors are concerned to define and illustrate what they regard as optimum conditions in their various fields rather than to give very precise details of the methods by which they propose to seek practical realisation of the programme they outline. Thus the " scientific development of the actual and potential resources of the world and the distribution of the resulting wealth to provide the fullest and most vigorous life for the whole species " is placed in the forefront of the economic postulates of the Federation. Mr. Allan Young does not find it difficult to show how desirable such an aim appears in contrast to conditions as we know them to-day and he advocates national planning to achieve it. But the Federation demands " the setting up of world economic research and statistical centres to elaborate and direct a world plan." It asks that a world banking organization and a world currency shall be established and that a central control shall ultimately be established over the distribution of raw materials in order to stabilize world prices."

It may be granted that if such a central direction and control were established and if it were able to function all might be well. But to invite the present generation of humanity to see its salvation in solutions so general and so remote is dangerously near condemning the movement to sterility on its economic side.

Mr. Joad, President of the Federation, realizes that Mr. Young has the hardest task of all the contributors, although in arguing for general disarmament and world government Mr. Arnold Foster faces a problem whose practical difficulties are hardly less acute even if they are somewhat better known.

Mr. Francis Meynell devotes most of his paper, " What shall I do in the next War," to showing that war is atrocious, a crime against reason, suicidal and abominable, in the course of which he makes many sardonic comments on the subject of war in general. His answer to the question, however, is not very clear. " My part will be quite passive," he says on p. 115, but later he declares " I am in any event not in favour of doing nothing."

What he would be prepared to do may be gathered from p. 129. He will make a protest " at the time and in the manner that will render it most effective." He might it seems be prepared to make a compromise, to undergo a military medical examination, to wear a uniform, to replace a man sent to the front. But there must be " one sure point, our personal point of honour, beyond which we will not

go." And the decision when this point is reached " must be individual."

The paper on " Education and World Citizenship " by Dr. W. O. Stapledon, starting with the view that nothing in the world is more important than education, transfers a good deal of this importance to the status of the teachers who should be " the most honoured of all professions " and whose training should be " carried out without regard for expense." Some of the other postulates for the well-being of teachers would startle even the N.U.T. Suffice it to say that they cumulate in the demand that " the national profession of teachers should have the main control over the educational system " whether " without regard for expense " or not does not appear. When a teacher has reached a " fairly low age-limit " he or she should " be given posts in the Civil Service."

Proposals of this nature may command the assent of all truly progressive people but if only to make them a little more clear to the unenlightened it would have been valuable to have some estimate of such details as the numbers of teachers considered necessary to carry out such a plan, and its approximate cost in equipment, salaries, travelling allowances and pensions calculated in terms of direct taxation to be levied on the community.

There is much sound sense in the chapters on the Reform of the Sex Laws (by Janet Chance) and the Reform of the Criminal Law (by D. N. Pritt, K.C.). The short essay on the latter topic, a crisp and effective statement, is in many ways the best in the book. There are two papers on town and country planning which ably recapitulate arguments which will be familiar to many readers of PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION. In an essay on " The Secularization of the State and the Freedom of the Individual " Mr. Archibald Robertson seeks to show that the power of organised Christianity is a heavy handicap to progress, and, finally, " A Psychology for Progressives " is attempted by Mr. J. C. Flugel. It is no reflection upon him to say that the progressive movement will probably be just as effective without being able to attribute correctly the rôles of the ego, the super-ego and the id. Mr. Joad's declaration at the outset that the movement is based upon a Victorian trust in reason will probably suffice as a working creed for the majority of its adherents. The attempt to make the force of reason triumphant in all spheres of social life and to unite the forces seeking to achieve that purpose will command assent whatever view is taken of the adequacy of the long-term objectives of the Federation or of the practicability of all the measures by which it hopes to attain them.

F. R. COWELL.

THE DOMINIONS

THE SOUTH AFRICAN JOURNAL OF ECONOMICS, March, 1934. (P. S. King & Son.) 6s.

THIS is the first number of the second volume of the Quarterly Journal of the Economic Society of South Africa, yet, in spite of its extreme youth, the Journal now has every appearance of a veteran publication, and has even managed to secure thirty-three pages of advertisements of the highest class, ranging from the announcements of gold mining companies to those of our own Royal Economic Society and Royal Statistical Society. Its contents maintain the high standard set by the first volume, and the Journal, if it continues in the way it is going, will certainly be a valuable addition to the relatively small number of publications devoted to the serious study of current economic problems.

The first issue of 1934 takes, by accident, almost the aspect of a review of other publications. Its first, and longest, article is a defence by Professor Hutt, of the University of Cape Town, of the utility of classical economic theory as an instrument for examining our present economic distresses and in particular that aspect of them which is bound up with the almost complete disappearance of free competition. It is based mainly upon a study of two recent publications, Professor Chamberlin's "Theory of Monopolistic Competition" (Harvard University Press) and Mrs. Robinson's "Economics of Imperfect Competition" (Macmillan).

Mr. S. D. Neumark sets himself the task of reviewing nine recent books on the world agricultural crisis, including three League of Nations publications and reports of the International Institute of Agriculture and of a group of members of the Royal Institute of International Affairs. In all cases except that of the group of members of the Royal Institute the conclusion is that the agricultural depression is due to over-production, brought about, particularly in the case of cereals, where the depression is most marked, by the technical improvement in farming methods in the oversea countries. The other view is that this factor cannot be regarded as the main cause while millions of the world's population exist below a reasonable subsistence level. This view, however, leaves out of account the lack of purchasing power on the part of the poorest section of the world's population and also the question of taste. For the first time in the history of the world, probably, wheat has recently been cheaper than rice: yet the Chinese have not taken advantage of the opportunity to change to the more valuable cereal, for the simple reason that their taste leads them to prefer their usual diet. The review covers such a wide field that it is perhaps not surprising that not much attention is devoted to the part played by protectionism in consuming countries if not in causing at least in deepening and prolonging the depression. There is, however, an interesting comment on the "back to the land" policy in industrial countries, ending with a quotation from Loveday's "Britain and World Trade" written in 1930, "a point may soon be reached after which the major problems of agriculture in industrial States cease to be regarded as economic and become and are acknowledged to be primarily social." As the reviewer remarks, "It seems as if this point has been reached already," a none too happy state of affairs for oversea agricultural countries.

A plea for a reversal of the present policy of economic nationalism is contributed by Mr. P. O. Williams and a review of J. L. Cohen's "Building Society Finance," with particular reference to the proposed Union legislation on the subject, by Mr. J. J. I. Middleton. Excellent reviews take up the rest of the issue; among them that on J. H. Kirk's "Agriculture and the Trade Cycle" is worthy of special mention, and, for those who take an interest in South Africa's most vital problem, special interest attaches to Mr. Hoernlé's examination of the report of an inquiry into the effects of the copper mines of Central Africa upon native society, made under the auspices of the International Missionary Council.

THE SOUTH AFRICAN JOURNAL OF ECONOMICS, June, 1934. (P. S. King & Son.) 6s.

THE reader of PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION would probably turn first in this publication to Professor Whittaker's paper on "Government and Economic Control." He ranges in a short space over a very wide field and contents himself with setting out the problem, leaving analysis and the drawing of conclusions out of account. One cannot but hope, therefore, that at some future time he will go into this vital subject a little more deeply. As it is, he shows how the pendulum has swung back from the position of *laissez faire* of last century to that of the mercantilism of the sixteenth, seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries, but observes that, whereas in those earlier days commercial success was

sought mainly as a means to attain power for the State, in these days commercial success is desired mainly for its own sake, though the desire for national aggrandisement is not entirely absent. Whatever the object, however, it is clear that State interference in present conditions is inevitable and must continue to grow, and the vital question for the serious student is whether the gain from what are certainly beneficent activities, such as the proper control of public utilities, the provision of railways where private enterprise would fail to meet the country's needs, and the conservation of natural resources are more than counterbalanced by the selfish nationalistic activities which can have no other effect than to impoverish the world. That guidance for the purpose of instructing public opinion on these matters is urgently needed goes without saying, for there is little evidence that governments have any clear idea where they are going, or even where they want to go, in this matter. Professor Whittaker devotes some space to the danger of political jobbery in connection with enterprises carried out under the ægis of the State, and mentions in this connection the safeguard introduced by a civil service on the lines of our own. He remarks that whereas our system of divorcing the civil service from political influence had made some headway in other countries, there is now clear evidence of a movement in the other direction.

The interest of South Africa in gold no doubt accounts for the appearance of Professor Edwin Cannan's presidential address to the Royal Economic Society in April last on "The Future of Gold in Relation to Demand." By permission of the Society the paper is here printed simultaneously with its appearance in the "Economic Journal."

The need for a journal of this kind in South Africa is brought out in the opening paragraphs of an extremely interesting paper on "Business Cycles in South Africa," by Professor Schumann, of the University of Stellenbosch, where he remarks that "in South Africa we have scarcely started to make a careful investigation of the different fluctuations in the economic development of the country." His paper deals with all the familiar indices for estimating industrial activity and relates them to the case of South Africa, giving special prominence to the index of gold-mining shares. He emphasises the need for the establishment of an institute for economic and business research, particularly in view of the unique South African problem of a gradually diminishing gold mining industry and the inevitable consequential transition to a differently constructed economic system.

Other articles deal with Witwatersrand mining policy and with the Report of the Commission on Agricultural Co-operation, and there are the usual reviews and notes on current topics.

J. K.

THE ECONOMIC RECORD, June, 1934. The Journal of the Economic Society of Australia and New Zealand. (Oxford University Press.) 5s. net, 10s. annual subscription.

THE first article in this issue is signed "R. G. Hawtrey," and is a review of Professor Copland's recent book "Australia and the World Crisis, 1929-33" (Cambridge University Press). Professor Copland and Messrs. Giblin and Dyason were called upon in 1930 to advise the Australian Government in the disastrous circumstances brought about in Australia by the depression. The magnitude of the disaster with which they were faced is shown by the calculation—made after the event—that the national income was believed to have fallen from £645,000,000 in 1928-9 to £459,000,000 in 1930-31 and to £430,000,000 in 1931-32. The book is an examination of the steps taken on the advice of its author, who supplies not only some observations upon future policy but also second thoughts on the wisdom of his own advice in same particulars.

Mr. G. V. Portus of the University of Adelaide contributes a paper on the historical rôle of trade unionism. He traces shortly the history of the movement in Great Britain, showing that it has alternated between periods of defence and protest and between industrial and political action, and winds up with an examination of the question whether, since trade unionism is the product of industrial capitalism, its function would not disappear with the success of its secondary object, which is the overthrow of the capitalist system. Clearly its primary object, to defend the workers' interests against the masters, would no longer exist. An examination follows of the position of trade unionism in Russia, and the conclusion is that, though the membership has increased threefold since 1920, the functions of the unions have changed to such an extent that almost their only resemblance to trade unions as we know them lies in the name

The official case of Western Australia for withdrawal from the Commonwealth is the subject of examination by Mr. E. L. Piesse. The main counts in the case against Commonwealth policy are the customs union, which gives the manufacturers of the other States free entry into Western Australia and the high level of the tariff which, while it brings no benefit to the primary producers of the west, raises the cost of everything

they need to buy. Mr. Piesse remarks, however, that, in the present state of world markets, it is not certain that tariff autonomy would end the troubles of a territory which exports two-thirds of its primary production and 90 per cent. of its wheat, and that if, owing to difficulties in marketing its produce, an effort were made to start secondary industries, the probable result would be tariffs even higher than the present Commonwealth tariffs. One cannot but doubt the validity of this last comment in relation to a State so predominantly agricultural as Western Australia, though recent experience suggest that States are capable of any form of economic lunacy.

Two articles on New Zealand deal with depression psychology and with railway transport. Mr. Gifford contributes a mathematical examination of the effects of protection on the price level in Australia. Among the reviews are notes on Miss Anne Ashley's life of Sir William Ashley and Mr. Flux's paper on the measurement of price changes, with special reference to the Board of Trade index which he established in 1921.

With some timidity the present reviewer, on behalf of readers outside Australia and New Zealand, makes one suggestion: that the index should contain some information about authors in addition to their names.

J. K.

Books Received

Books received include the following:—

Title.	*Author.*	*Publisher.*	*Price.*
Trade Unions and the State	W. Milne-Bailey	Allen & Unwin	12/6
Planning the Modern State	F. A. Bland	Australian Book Co.	4/6
Appeals for Funds and Hospital Publicity	J. E. Stone	Birbeck & Sons (Birmingham)	—
The English Borstal System	S. Barman	P. S. King & Son	12/-
Church and Slum, Vol. 1, No. 2	Church Union Housing Association	—	6d.
Exposition of the Rees-Nicholson Proposals for a National Housing Board	F. H. Rees and Reginald Nicholson	—	—
Law Making in the United States	Harvey Walker	Ronald Press Co. (New York)	$4.00
Dark Interval	Rosalind Cornwall	Methuen & Co.	7/6
Behind the Throne	Paul Emden	Hodder & Stoughton	15/-
Higher Control	T. G. Rose	Pitman & Sons	12/6
Rural Highway Units—1933	Report of Conference held in New York	Social Service Research Council	—
The City-Manager Profession	C. E. Ridley and Orin F. Noltung	Univ. of Chicago and Cambridge Univ. Press	9/-
The Public Authorities Protection Act, 1893	J. J. Somerville	Sweet & Maxwell	15/-
The Statesman's Year-book, 1934	M. Epstein	Macmillan	20/-
The Agricultural Register, 1933-34	Agricultural Economics Research Institute	Oxford	3/6
Scientific Research and Social Needs	Julian Huxley	Watts & Co.	7/6
The Great Depression	Lionel Robbins	Macmillan	8/6
The Struggle for the Freedom of the Press from Caxton to Cromwell	William M. Clyde	H. Milford, Oxford Univ. Press	—
Imperial Economy, etc.	C. R. Fay	Oxford Univ. Press	6/-
Simple Economics	F. H. Spencer	Univ. of London Press	2/-
Public Affairs	A. F. Chappell	Univ. of London Press	1/10
Civil Service Examinations	—	H.M. Stationery Office	1/3
Public Assistance	J. J. Clarke	Pitman	6/-
Origin of the International Labour Organisation (2 vols.)	—	Oxford Univ. Press	50/-
London Statistics	L.C.C.	London County Council	15/-
Where Labour Rules	H. R. S. Phillpott	Methuen	2/6
Local Government	H. Lloyd Parry	P. S. King	6/-
The Local Government Act, 1933	Alfred R. Taylour	Hadden, Best & Co.	42/-

Printed in Great Britain by Metchim & Son, Ltd., 8, Princes Street, Westminster, S.W.1, and 32, Clements Lane, London, E.C.4.